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HISTORY OF ENGLISH, PARTS 3 AND 4--OLD ENGLISH TO EARLY MODERN. LANGUAGE CURRICULUM V AND VI, TEACHER AND STUDENT VERSIONS.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH FROM ANGLO-SAXON THROUGH THE LANGUAGE OF CHAUCER TO THAT OF SHAKESPEARE IS THE SUBJECT OF THIS UNIT FOR 11TH- OR 12TH-GRADERS. THOSE HISTORICAL EVENTS AND CONDITIONS WHICH HAVE HAD A DIRECT EFFECT ON THE LANGUAGE OF ENGLISH-SPEAKING PEOPLES ARE EXAMINED, ALONG WITH THE MAJOR INTERNAL CHANGES IN ENGLISH WHICH TOOK PLACE SLOWLY OVER A PERIOD OF CENTURIES. DEVELOPMENTS IN OLD AND MIDDLE ENGLISH SPELLING, PHONOLOGY, GRAMMAR, AND VOCABULARY ARE EXPLAINED. THE FINAL CHAPTER INTRODUCES THE METHODS OF COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY WHICH MAKE IT POSSIBLE TO ESTABLISH THE RELATIONSHIPS AND GENEOLOGIES OF LANGUAGES AND TO RECONSTRUCT LIKELY PRE-WRITTEN FORMS. THE STUDENT VERSION INCLUDES EXPLANATIONS OF MATERIAL, EXERCISES, AND STUDY AND DISCUSSION QUESTIONS. THE TEACHER VERSION PROVIDES BACKGROUND EXPLANATORY MATERIAL AND SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING PROCEDURES AND SUPPLEMENTARY READING. SEE ALSO ED 010 129 THROUGH ED 010 160, ED 010 803 THROUGH ED 010 832, TE 000 195 THROUGH TE 000 220, AND TE 000 227 THROUGH TE 000 249. (DL)

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Old English to Early Modern

Language Curriculum V and VI
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OREGON CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

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History of English: Part III

I. Introduction

By now you should be very much aware of the fact that language changes. Only languages which are no longer used remain the same. Latin, for instance, has sometimes been called a "dead" language because it is not the spoken language of any people living today. As a result the Latin which is studied in schools is the same Latin that existed at the time of Caeser. To be sure, people in following generations gradually changed Latin until it became other languages, but in the form that it existed in ancient Rome, it is no longer used.

Your language, too, is very different from the language which was spoken in the British Isles a thousand years ago. That old language, sometimes known as Anglo Saxon, is no longer spoken by any people alive today. Just how it changed to become the language which you use is an interesting study in history. You will be concerned with finding out something about that history in this unit. You will find out both about events that had some influence on the language and about some of the actual changes that have taken place.

A. Review of basic concepts

Now let us look back for a few minutes to make certain that some key concepts about language have not been overlooked or forgotten. Certain facts and principles must be understood before you can proceed with your study of the history of English. Try to answer each of the following questions. Your teacher will probably want to discuss each of them in some detail.

Relationship of writing and speech.

1. What is an alphabet? Do you know of any writing system which does not make use of an alphabet? What is the "alphabetic principle"?

2. In terms of our alphabetic writing system, what is the relationship between writing and speech? Which developed (or was invented) first--speech or writing? What evidence do you have to support your answer?

3. Does each letter in the English alphabet stand for just one sound? Is each distinctive sound in English always represented by the same letter? What are some examples of the lack of "fit" between the sounds of English and the set of symbols we use to represent them?

Different kinds of English.

1. Is there only one kind of English spoken in this world? What are some of the national (or continental) varieties of English? Are these national varieties of English all acceptable, or is one kind better than the others?

2. Does American English show variation among the different regions in the United States? What are some examples of words, pronunciations, or expressions which would be found in the speech of one region but not in another?

3. What is a dialect? What are some of the factors or conditions which brought about different regional dialects in the United States? Is one regional dialect "better" than any of the other regional dialects? Are such regional dialects present in the English spoken in Great Britain?

4. What is meant by the term social dialect? Which social dialect is taught in the schools in your region? How does your dictionary label those words, pronunciations, and expressions that are not a part of the prestige (or standard) dialects?

5. Does your use of language change as you move from one kind of situation to another? That is, do you use the same kind of language among your friends and family as you do when speaking before a large audience? For instance, how does your language differ when you ask a question of your teacher in the classroom as compared with the way you ask your brother or sister for information?

Language change.

1. What do you conclude about Shakespeare's language (in relation to your own, that is) when you read sentences like the following from the play, Julius Caesar?

   "Cinna, where haste you so?"
   "Saw you anything?"
   "And this man/Is now become a god . . ."
   "But I fear him not."
   "Sit thee down, Clitus."
   "I durst not laugh. . ."

   If you concluded that Shakespeare's language differs from your own--and it seems clear that you must--how do you account for these differences? That is, do you consider our present-day language a degenerate form of some purer language?

2. Could you or your national or state government put a stop to changes in language? Why? or why not?

3. Is Shakespeare's language different from ours in grammar only? Are there also differences in vocabulary? Can you think of any words used in a play of Shakespeare's that have meanings different from the ones we assign to them today? How did Shakespeare pronounce words like soldier, nature, issue, body, father, blood, and clean?

4. What kind of language did the earliest settlers in Jamestown and Plymouth colonies speak? Were these early settlers Shakespeare's contemporaries? How would you describe the changes that have taken place in American English in the last 300 years? That is, would you call them insignificant, very significant, or something else?

B. Overview of the rest of this unit

Your study of the history of the English language is much like the study of American history. You first learn about the events that have occurred; then you try to determine what effects these events have had upon the country itself--its institutions, its people, and its relations with other countries. In this unit you will study the most important historical events and developments which have had a direct effect upon the English language and those who have spoken it. This study will be called the "external" history of English, since it deals with the historical, political, and social events that are not concerned with language but have had an effect upon it. Following this study, you will examine the effects of these external events upon the English language, as well as the effects of internal systematic changes within the language itself. You will trace the development of English from the time it is first called "English" up to the present day. The final section of the unit will deal briefly with the comparative method used by linguists in studying earlier forms of languages. In examining the methods of linguistic science, you will learn what it means for languages to be "related" and which languages of the world are most closely related to English.

There are values to be gained from the study of the history of your native language other than just the facts and ideas you learn. Certainly some of the mystery of English spelling will disappear when you have found out how many changes in English pronunciation have taken place in the last thousand years. If you understand the forces that tend to keep our writing system the same and understand the forces that produce changes in sounds, you will not be surprised to discover that Modern English spelling has become rather inconsistent in representing the sounds of English. Perhaps you may become a better speller (and perhaps even a better writer) when you have learned something of the history of words--

their origins, their derivations, and their inflections. The educated person should know how his own language is related to other languages of the world, and he should also be aware of the events in the past that have helped to shape his native language. But, perhaps most important of all, the person who knows something of the history of his own language will use that language with a greater appreciation of the richness of the past as it is reflected in borrowed words, unusual spellings, or peculiarities of sentence structure.

II. External History of English

The difference between "external" and "internal" history might be shown by means of an analogy. The building in which you attend school has a history, and so does the group of pupils who compose the "student body." Both undergo changes in the passage of time. The differences lie in the kind of history each has. The building remains basically the same structure of bricks, mortar, cement, and steel. Little change, other than minor physical alterations and normal wear, takes place in the actual material it is made of. But the building has a history in another sense of the word--namely, the events that have occurred in and around the building and the changes that have taken place in the neighborhood in which it stands. We can call these events and changes the "external" history of your school. They undoubtedly had some effect on what has happened in the school.

The interesting history of the student body of your school is of another kind. At any particular point in time, you could say that the student body is made up of roughly fifty per cent girls and fifty per cent boys, all of whom are between fifteen and eighteen years of age. But each year one-third or one-fourth of this group leaves and is replaced by another group of approximately the same number. Over a period of three or four years, the entire student body changes completely in terms of the individuals who compose it. Even within the individual who spends three or four years in the school, there are other changes taking place. Every day of each year the individual grows, learns, and changes in many different ways. And yet, in another sense, the student body remains very much the same. The individuals who are the student body change each year, but the pupils are roughly the same age, are engaged in nearly the same tasks, and are in school for approximately the same purposes as the members of the student body in past years. Thus we can say that basically the student body remains the same in kind but that the individuals who are its members have been replaced through a regular process of change. We will call the history of this change the "internal" history of the school.

In your study of English, you will first take up the changes in environment and circumstances that have had a direct bearing upon the English-speaking peoples. This study of the "external" history of English will include not only events such as wars and invasions but also less dramatic events such as those which lead to a "standard dialect." But before you begin your reading, let us attempt to provide a framework within which you can place these events.

Limits of the study. When can we first begin to speak of an "English" language? As you will soon find out, the Germanic tribes that invaded the island of Britain (beginning in approximately 450 A.D.) spoke several different dialects of a language which, according to earliest known records, was called "Englisc," the language of the Angles. The Angles, of course, were only one of the important tribes in that group of invaders. But the language of these tribes did not come into being the day they left their homes in what is now Northern Germany and the Danish peninsula. Their language (or dialects of a language) had an unbroken history stretching back into the unrecorded chapters of European history and beyond. Thus we have no linguistic basis upon which to date the beginning of the English language. In the absence of such a basis, we will rather arbitrarily decide that our study will begin at the time when the Germanic tribes reached the island of Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries. At this time the different dialects which they spoke began an existence isolated from their related languages and dialects on the continent.

Periods of history. Having established the limits of our study--the fifth century A.D. to the present day--we can also divide that span of history into manageable pieces. In other words, since the history of English is so extensive, it might be advisable to divide it into several different periods and to consider each separately. Language scholars usually divide the history of English into three parts: (1) Old English (sometimes called Anglo-Saxon), 450 A.D. to 1150; (2) Middle English, 1150 to 1450; and (3) Modern English, 1450 to the present. The Modern English period is often subdivided into Early Modern English, 1450 to 1700, and Modern English, 1700 to the present. Within each of these periods, English has characteristics that set it off from earlier and later stages of the language. But you must be careful not to misunderstand the significance of these dates. English speakers did not wake up on New Year's Day in 1150 and begin to speak Middle English rather than Old English. As you already know, language changes rather slowly. The language of one generation is never very much different from that of preceding or succeeding ones; language change must be slow so that from generation to generation verbal communication is not impaired. But over a period of several generations the changes are great enough that we can, with some justification, speak of different periods and stages of a language. You simply need to remember that the beginning and ending dates of each period are just convenient points of division. The examples we will use of English from these periods will usually be separated by two or three centuries so as to make the language changes more obvious.

A. Reading assignment

The pamphlet[1] that has been selected to accompany this unit uses the words "inner" and "outer" history rather than the terms "internal" and "external." However, there should be no confusion from this difference, since the respective terms are clearly synonymous. After reading pages 1-20 in the Francis text, study the questions in the following section. Your teacher may want to discuss these questions with the entire class or he may assign one or more of them as writing assignments. As a memory aid, you may want to list in your notebook the major events for each period of the history of English.

B. Discussion questions

1. What would be your reply if someone said to you that the reason for the "irregularity and lack of consistent patterns" in English is that English has not existed as a language for very long? Ignoring the claim of "irregularity" for the time being, try to develop an answer for the latter part of the statement ("that English has not existed as a language for very long").

2. How would you reply if someone asked you which language is the oldest one in the world? Make certain that you distinguish between writing systems and language itself, since it is possible to determine the dates of the earliest written documents, but this is not possible for the spoken language.

3. In what ways have political divisions (national boundaries etc.) affected the distinctions made between different languages and between different dialects of a single language? That is, do you know of instances where the name of the native language of a particular country has been chosen for political rather than linguistic reasons or vice versa? For example, do we call our language "American" because we live in America? Do the people of Brazil call their language "Brazilian"? Do the natives of Mexico call their language "Mexican"? Are all the languages spoken in the Soviet Union called "Russian"? Are all the languages of China called "Chinese"?

4. What people lived on the island of Britain at the time the Germanic tribes (Anglo-Saxons) began to settle there? What do we know about their history prior to the fifth century A. D. ?

5. It was mentioned in an earlier unit (Writing Systems) that the Christianization of England introduced the practice of writing English with the letters of the Latin alphabet. What other important effects did Christianity have upon these tribes and the language they spoke?

6. What evidence do scholars have in support of the claim that different dialects existed in Old and Middle English as well as in Modern English? That is, how do we know that there were (and are) differences between the English spoken in the northern parts of the island and that spoken in the South or West?

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[1] W. Nelson Francis, The History of English (New York, 1963), pp. 1-20.

7. During the Viking Age (roughly 787--1042), England was often under attack by armies of Scandinavian seafarers. In between these attacks came waves of settlers. What were the most important results of these invasions and settlements?

8. The Norman Conquest in 1066 not only defeated the English armies but replaced the English ruling classes. How did the results of the Norman Conquest differ from those of the Scandinavian invasions which had ceased only a few years before William the Conqueror arrived?

9. What were the relative positions of the Norman French and English languages during the two or more centuries following the Norman Conquest? That is, what were the languages of the upper and lower classes in this feudal society? What are the relative positions of French and English today with respect to their prestige as "international" languages?

10. What events that occurred between 1066 and 1400 had the effect of re-establishing English as the language of first importance on the island of England?

11. The Norman Conquest was the last time England has ever been invaded by a nation speaking another language. Of what importance is this fact to the subsequent history of English?

12. The dialect of London came to be considered the "best" of English dialects during the late Middle Ages (1300--1500). What are some of the reasons for this development? For example, was it because the dialect of London was the most beautiful?

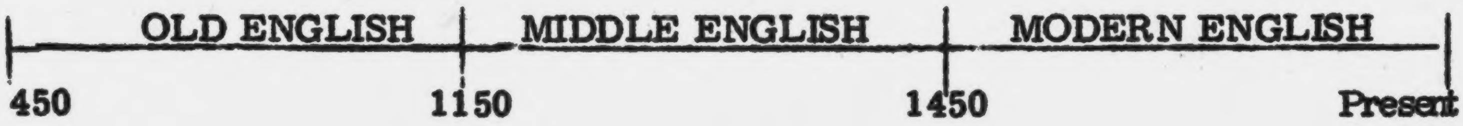
13. Why is the introduction of the printing press into England in 1476 considered to be such an important event in the history of English?

14. During the Modern English period, English-speaking people took their language with them into many different parts of the world where they established colonies and even new countries. Today, over 300 million people speak English as a native language. In what countries is English the native language? In what countries is it an important second language? By "second language" we mean to imply that a language is spoken by a large part of the population in addition to their own native language. In a large part of Africa, English is not only an important second language but also the "national" language as well. In those countries where the inhabitants speak numerous tribal languages, English serves as the "common language" by which they all can communicate. In which African countries is this the situation?

15. In King Alfred's time, few Englishmen could read and write; in Shakespeare's time, many people (at least in London) were literate; and today nearly everyone in countries like England and the United States can read and write. What effects, if any, does such widespread literacy have upon the attitudes of people towards their native language? For example, is the use of a standard written dialect encouraged or discouraged by such a high degree of literacy?

C. Exercises

1. Construct a time line for the history of English extending from 450 A.D. up to the present day. It might be a good idea to divide the line into three parts representing the major periods of English history. Include only the most important events.



2. Try to pretend for a moment that you have the power to change history. You may alter or reverse the outcome of any one event in the history of English. Explain which event you would choose to alter or reverse (or even add) in order to affect the history of English in the most significant way. Explain what the subsequent history of English would have been like if the event had turned out in the way you have described. For example, what would have been the result if Napoleon had successfully invaded England in 1804?

III. Internal History of English

The historical events which happen to a people have some effect upon their language and have, therefore, been called the "external" history of the language. It has been compared to the "external history" of a school building. But just as the history of a school is primarily "internal"--concerned with the student body and what goes on inside the school--the history of a language is primarily "internal"--concerned with the changes which go on inside the language.

During any single generation a language changes very little. But over the period of several generations the accumulated changes can produce a radically different system. You probably have trouble recognizing the English of the Anglo Saxon period as your own language. For instance, can you decipher the following famous description of the character of William the Conqueror? (It was found in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,* an account of historical events of the Anglo Saxon period.)

> Se cyng Willelm þe we embe specað wæs swiðe wis man. and
> swiðe ríce. and wurðfulre and strengere þonne ænig his fore-
> genga wære. He wæs milde þä godū mannū þe god lufedon.
> and ofer eall gemett stearc þe mannū(a) þe wiðcwædon his willan.

Not only are several of the letters and most of the words strange, but the order in which the words are arranged differs somewhat from Modern English, as you can see from a literal translation of the sentences:

> This King William that we about-speak was [a] very wise man and very powerful and worthier and stronger than any of his fore-goers [=predecessors]. He was mild to good men who loved God.(b) and over all measure stern with those men who against-spoke his will [=who contradicted him].

Like the student body of your school, language changes internally over the years. The individual words in the vocabulary are often replaced by others, and the remaining words themselves are often changed in both form and meaning. Even the rules that govern the ways in which these words may be combined can undergo change. Like the rules governing the behavior of pupils in a school, the rules change, but the change at any one time is very slight. Despite the internal changes, a language continues to be used for the same purpose it has always served--communication. The various parts, although altered in many respects, continue to function in roughly the same ways. The language of one generation is always understandable to the immediately preceding or succeeding generations. We can say, then, that a language keeps a certain "identity" as it is passed from one generation to another. Similarly, the present student body of your school is linked to those of past years by means of your common purpose and function and by means of a systematic process of replacement and change. The systematic and continuous process of change, as it is reflected in the development of the English language, is the subject of our study.

(a) Medieval scribes could save a little parchment and labor by putting a bar over a letter instead of writing the nasal consonant (such as *m* or *n*) after it. Here the bar stands for an *m,* so that *mannū* is really *mannum.*

(b) Here we must reverse the words *God* and *loved.* The -*on* ending of the verb *lufedon* tells us that *mannū* (men) is the subject of the verb, so that *God* must be the object; in Modern English the only way to show this is by placing the noun after the verb.

Reading assignments. Since all parts of a language--spelling, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary--undergo change, we will try to study each of these parts. You will again use The History of English by Nelson Francis as the text to accompany this part of the unit. You will also use a second source, "A Brief History of the English Language,"[2] by Albert H. Marckwardt, which emphasizes the development of the English vocabulary.

We will study each of the four major areas of change separately, so that you will be able to trace the patterns of change more easily. First you will be asked to read pages 25-40 in the Francis text to get an overview of the major changes. You should remember that Francis takes up each of the major areas in the Old English period, then takes them up again in the Middle English period, etc. However, you will be considering only one major area at a time. So, after you have read Francis you will read, probably in separate assignments, the following material in this unit.

A. The spelling of Old and Middle English, pp. 10-14

B. The sounds of Old and Middle English, pp. 14-22

C. The grammar of Old and Middle English, pp. 22-29

When you have completed this work, you will read pages 7-19 of the Marckwardt text and follow it with

D. The vocabulary of Old and Middle English, pp. 29-34 in this unit.

Your teacher will decide exactly how your class will handle the assignments and the discussion questions and exercises found at the end of each section.

A. The spelling of Old and Middle English

The example of Old English on page 9 of Part III may have convinced you that writers of Old English did not use exactly the same writing system that you use today. How many unfamiliar symbols can you find in the example? When the Latin alphabet was first used to write English, those early writers were forced to make changes in order to adapt the letters to the sounds of English. At this time the Latin alphabet had twenty-three letters, only five of which were used for vowel sounds: a, e, i, o, and u. But they also had some symbols which we don't have today. One unfamiliar symbol used in Old English writing was the digraph æ, called "ash," which was used to represent the vowel sound like that in Modern English cat. Some writers used the runic letter ƿ, "wen", to stand for the sound /w/, as in wet. Another runic letter, þ "thorn", was used to represent the two sounds spelled in Modern English by the letters th, as in then and thin. Another letter, ð "eth" (a crossed d), was used interchangeably with "thorn" to represent these same two sounds.

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[2] Reprinted by permission from Funk and Wagnalls Standard College Dictionary, Text Edition, published by Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. Copyright 1963 by Funk and Wagnalls Co., Inc.

Some letters from the Latin alphabet were used to stand for sounds which they do not represent in Modern English writing. The letter c, for example, stood not only for the sound /k/, as in keep, but also for the first sound in a word like chide. The letter g served as the symbol for the sound /g/, as in get, for the sound /y/, as in yet, and for still another sound which is not found in Modern English. Another sound not found in Modern English was represented by the letter y (approximately the sound of ü in German Kühn and müssen. It is similar to the sound you would get if you tried to say beet with your lips rounded and protruding.) It was found, for example, in Old English fyr, (fire). The long mark over the vowel (ȳ) is a device begun in modern times by editors of Old English texts. The long mark indicates the length of the vowel sound--that is, the time it takes to say the sound. For example, the first vowel in the expression ahā is short; the second vowel is long. You can find examples of most of these sounds in the example on p. 1.

As you have already found out, many letters in Old English writing stood for sounds which they no longer represent in present-day English. This is also true of Middle English writing. Furthermore, there were sounds in both Old and Middle English that no longer exist in the English of today. You simply cannot assume that a knowledge of our Modern English writing system enables you to interpret the sounds of Old or Middle English. One sound formerly represented by y and one of the sounds represented by g were not the only ones that have been lost in Modern English. The modern spelling of words like right and night, for instance, reminds us that English once had a sound like the one spelled in German by the letters ch, as in ich or dich. (It is close to the sound you will get if you say ick with the tip of your tongue pressed against your lower teeth.) This sound (let us symbolize it by /x/) was usually spelled with the letter h, as in Old English niht (night). In later years, however, it was spelled with the letter ȝ ("yogh"), and even later this sound was spelled with the letters gh. To further complicate matters, the letter ȝ "yogh" was sometimes used to represent the sound /y/. In order for you to be able to read Old or Middle English aloud, you would need to learn much more about the customs of earlier English writing systems.

The purpose of this part of the unit is not, however, to prepare you to read Old and Middle English orally. The main purpose is, rather, to illustrate the important fact that a writing system of a particular language can undergo change. Letters may be dropped from use and others may take their places. As the pronunciation of a language changes, the writing system may or may not be altered to reflect these changes. And, as we see in Modern English writing, a letter may represent more than one sound (cat, cite, etc.) and a sound may be represented by more than one letter (sugar, shame, chauffeur, nation, etc.). In other words, an alphabetic writing system may not always bear a simple relationship to the sounds of the language it represents. And often it is possible to see the influences which history has had on the way a language is written.

Let us trace briefly the effects of history that we see reflected in our English writing system. First of all, the use of the Latin alphabet (rather than one of the other alphabets then used in Europe) came about as a direct result of the Christianization of England in the sixth and seventh centuries. Prior to this time, English had been written only sparingly by means of a runic alphabet.[3] But the only reminders of this earlier system are the two runic symbols "wen" and "thorn" (ƿ and þ) that were used in Old English to supplement the Latin letters.

One effect of the Norman Conquest in 1066 can be seen in the spelling of a great many French words that entered Middle English: gentylesse, royame, incongrue, etc. More importantly, many French writing practices were introduced by the Anglo-French scribes. For example, these scribes began the practice of spelling the English words having initial cw with the French qu, as in quake, quick, or queen. The letters þ, ð, and ȝ were dropped from use and the modern practice of using th and gh was begun.

Other writing conventions started in the late Middle English period are the use of c to stand for the sound /s/ before e or i (as in city) and the doubling of vowel letters to indicate the length of the vowel sound (that is, the time it takes to say the sound), as in hoom and stoon (now home and stone). Our spelling has been further affected by the constantly increasing number of foreign words that we have borrowed since the Renaissance. We tend, in most cases, to keep the foreign spelling, even when it is based upon writing conventions different from those we apply when we read it. Among these borrowings are the following: chauffeur, viscount, marquis, alumnae, dilettante, fuchsia, gherkin, quadrille, cipher, khaki, and camouflage. As you can see, vocabulary borrowing does not lead to regularity within a writing system.

Perhaps the most significant event in the history of our English writing system was the development of the art of printing in the fifteenth century. During the earlier history of English, the writing system had changed in accordance with changes in pronunciation. That is, people had spelled words according to the ways they pronounced them. Such a practice did not always lead to consistency; some writers were known to spell a single word in several different ways on the same page. The word fellow, for instance, had the following variations in Shakespeare's day: felow, felowe, fallow, and fallowe. With the development of printing, a gradual trend towards standardized spelling began. Printers very carefully corrected the manuscripts given to them for printing. The writing conventions of London became standard for all of England. As a result of this "regularization," English spelling had become relatively "fixed" by the late seventeenth century. Standardization of spelling is, of course, a very desirable goal, but English spelling was fixed at a time when the pronunciation of English was undergoing important changes, especially in the sounds of vowels. This shift in the pronunciation of English will be discussed further in the section entitled "The Sounds of Old and Middle English."

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[3] See Writing Systems, Language Curriculum II.

Since the seventeenth century, attempts to modify English spelling--to bring it more into line with current pronunciation--have had very little success. Many of the "simplified" systems of spelling English that have been proposed are far from simple and often create as many problems as they solve. Learning the conventions of English writing was one of the most important jobs you accomplished in your first few years of school. Adoption of an entirely new writing system would require that you learn to read and write over again. Incidentally, much of the difficulty you encountered in trying to read the Old English selection on page 9 was largely the result of differences between Old and Modern English writing systems. Spelling reform is likely to remain a "lively" issue during the next few decades.

It is very difficult to discuss some changes in English spelling without also discussing various changes in English pronunciation. Let us postpone further discussion of spelling practices until we take up the problems of sound change, the next topic you will study.

Exercise 1.

Part A: Review the selections of Old and Middle English found on pages 26 and 30 of the Francis text. Make a list of those letters and combinations of letters which do not occur in Modern English spelling. Most of them were mentioned in the discussion of English spelling. Next to these letters, give examples of Old and Middle English words in which these letters are used. If you can discover the modern form of the words you have listed, write those words next to the older form. After you have studied the sounds of Old and Middle English, try to complete this list by indicating the sounds represented by these letters. Perhaps the following illustration will help:

Letter(s)	Word(s) in which it is used	Pronunciation
ð "eth"	ðe (the), ðæt (that) ægðer (either)	/θ/ as in thin /ð/ as in then

Part B: On page 12are listed some examples of words we have borrowed from another language. Using your dictionary, find out as much as you can about the borrowing of each word.

Part C: Choose a spelling "rule" from among those usually found in handbooks and student dictionaries. List a reasonable sample of words that follow this rule. Also list any exceptions to the rule that occur to you. Finally, decide whether or not the rule you chose is a valuable one to know for purposes of spelling English correctly. You will certainly remember the following rule: "I before e except after c or when sounded as /ē/, as in neighbor and weigh." Examples: believe, receive, etc.
Exceptions: seize, weird, etc.

B. The sounds of Old and Middle English

As you discovered earlier, it is not possible for us to discuss accurately the pronunciation of English unless we use a complete and consistent alphabet. It is necessary, therefore, to use a special set of symbols so that we can determine exactly which sound is being referred to. You have seen such a special alphabet before, but for convenience it is repeated here. Spoken American English has approximately thirty-eight separate and distinct sounds which make a difference in meaning. They make up what is often called a phonetic alphabet of English. This means, of course, that one symbol is assigned to one, and only one, sound.

These sounds can be represented by the following set of symbols:

b - buy
d - die
g - guy
p - pill
t - till
k - kill
f - fie
v - vie
θ - thigh, thin
ð - thy, then
h - high
s - sip
s - ship
c - chip
j - gyp, junk
z - zip
ž - measure
m - simmer
n - sinner
ŋ - singer

r - run, far
w - won
l - let
y - yet
ay - bite
ī - beet
i - bit
ē - bait
e - bet
æ - bat
ə - but, cud
aw - cowed, bout
ū - cooed
u - could
ō - code
o - cawed, law
a - cod
oy - coy

Perhaps your teacher will correct the set of key words listed above in the event that your regional pronunciation is different from that shown above. For example, if you live in New England you might not pronounce the word far with the final /r/ sound indicated above.

This special phonetic alphabet, which is devised for Modern English, is not adequate for representing all of the sounds of Old or Middle English. Modern English /r/ is not the same sound as Old and Middle English /r/, but we will use the same symbol in indicating Old and Middle English pronunciation. Inaccuracies such as this are not the only problem. More symbols are needed, since several sounds that occurred in earlier stages of the language are not found in Modern English. For example, the following would be essential:

/ȳ/ - pronounced as *üh* in German *kühn*, *u* in French *lune*

/x/ - pronounced as *ch* in High German *ich* or *nicht* (not voiced)

Reading Old English aloud. Examine the first few lines of the Old English selection on page 26 of the Francis text. Try to read the first line or two quietly to yourself. Now look at the following rough phonetic transcription of the Old English pronunciation: (A phonetic transcription means that the words have been written with the symbols of the phonetic alphabet so that we can tell how to pronounce them.)

ǣlfred kȳniŋg hateθ grētan wærferθ bišəp his wordum
lūvl̩ice and freōndl̩ice; and θe kyðan hate θæt mē kom
swiðe oft on yemȳnd, . . .

Notice that our special alphabet uses many of the same symbols that were used in writing Old English. The two writing systems are identical, for example, in using "ash" (æ) to represent the vowel sound in *that* and in using the letter *c* to represent the first sound in a word like *chide*. Some letters do double duty in the Old English writing system, however. The letter *c* was also used to stand for the sound /k/, as in *keep* (Old English *cepan*).

Our transcription of the first few lines of Alfred's *Preface* brings out several interesting facts about Old English pronunciation:

1. The king's name, Ælfred, was pronounced nearly the same as we do today, except for the /r/ sound which was trilled much as in present-day Scottish pronunciation of a word like *trip*.

2. The word kȳning (Modern English *king*) has a vowel sound no longer found in English. This vowel sound /ȳ/ is pronounced high in the front of your mouth with the lips fully rounded, as in German *kühn*. (Round your mouth as if to say /u/ as in *boot* and then without moving the lips say /i/ as in beet.)

3. The spelling *ng* represents the two sounds /ŋg/ in Old English, not the single sound /ŋ/ that it stands for in Modern English. The difference between these pronunciations can be seen in the two Modern English words *finger*, pronounced /fiŋgər/, and *singer*, pronounced /siŋər/ without the /g/.

4. The Old English word *biscep* (Modern English *bishop*) contains the combination *sc* which usually stood for the sound /s/, as in *scip* (Modern English *ship*).

5. Notice that the letter *s* in the Old English word *his* stands for the /s/ sound, not the /z/ sound that it represents in the Modern English word *his.* In Old English the *s* stood for the sound /s/ when it occurred at the beginning or the end of a word, but it also stood for the /z/ sound in other parts of words.

6. In the words *luflice* and *freondlice*, the letter *f* represents two different sounds: /v/ in the former and /f/ in the latter. Like the letter *s*, the sound represented by *f* in Old English spelling depended upon its environment in the word. *F* is pronounced as /v/ when it occurs between voiced sounds (as in *luflice*) but as /f/ elsewhere.

7. The letter *c* in both *luflice* and *freondlice* stands for the sound /c/, the first sound in the word *chide*. The suffix *-lice*, pronounced /lice/, appears as the suffix *-ly* in Modern English.

8. One final illustration of Old English pronunciation is seen in the word *sohte*, found in line 14 of Alfred's *Preface*. The sound that is indicated in this word by the letter *h* is no longer found in English. It is the same sound which occurs in Modern High German pronunciation of words like *ich* and *nicht*. In Old English spelling, the letter *h* also stood for the same sound /h/ that it represents in Modern English words like *his* or *hit*. But when the *h* follows a vowel sound or comes before a consonant in Old English writing, it is pronounced /x/. Thus the word *sohte* is pronounced /sōxte/. You will probably have difficulty saying this word unless you have studied another language that makes use of the /x/ sound.

The previous illustrations of Old English pronunciation may have convinced you that learning to read ninth century English is not an easy task. This may be so, but the task becomes easier as we approach Modern English. Let us shift our attention to the pronunciation of thirteenth century English to see if it sounds more like the language of today.

Reading Middle English aloud. Try to pronounce the words in the following rough transcription of the first few lines of the *Ancrene Riwle* found on page 30 of the Francis text:

> nū aski‿yē(c) hwat riulə yē aŋkrən šulən holdən. yē šulən
> aləswæis mid alə mixtə and mid alə streŋkθə wel witən
> θə inrə, and tə ūtrə for hirə sakə .

Now compare the phonetic transcription with the way the words are spelled in the selection on page 30 of the Frances text. What interesting facts about Middle English spelling do you notice?

(c) The ligature (‿) shows the vowel gliding into the semi-vowel.

The sounds of Middle English probably seem a bit strange to you, but this quotation from the English of 1200 is more like your own language than the selection from Alfred's Preface, which was dated at approximately 890 A.D. If we had used a selection from later Middle English, the writing and pronunciation would seem even more familiar.

The rough transcription given above illustrates a few important facts about sound change and changes in the writing system.

1. Notice in the first line that the letter ȝ "yogh" is used to represent the sound /y/ in the word ȝe (Modern English you).

2. The word mihte in line two contains the /x/ sound which was just discussed in the Old English selection. In this selection the /x/ sound is spelled with an h (mihte); later in the Middle English period it was spelled with ȝ "yogh" (miȝte) and also with the two letters gh (might). How does this information help you explain the spelling of Modern English might and words like it?

3. The use of "thorn" (þ) and "eth" (ð) interchangeably for the sounds /θ/ (as in thin) and /ð/ (as in then) in this selection from the Ancrene Riwle is the same as it was in Old English times. Later in the Middle English period both of these sounds are represented by the letters th. Notice that it is the voiceless sound /θ/ (as in thin) that occurs in the definite article the, spelled in this selection both as þe and ðe.

4. The use of v and u deserves special mention. Our modern distinction between u for the vowel and v for the consonant had not yet arisen. Instead, the choice of a form for the letter depended upon where in the word the letter occurred. Thus in line three the letter v stands for the vowel sound /ū/ in the word vttre and for the consonant sound /v/ in vor. The letter v represents both of these sounds when they come at the beginning of a word, but the letter u is used for the same two sounds when they occur elsewhere. In schullen the u stands for the vowel /u/, but in euer it stands for the consonant /v/.

5. Finally, notice the large number of words that end with the sound /ə/, called "schwa." In Old English the vowel sound in these endings was not "schwa," and in Modern English the vowel sound is lost entirely, as in the word sake (now pronounced /sek/ not /sakə/).

Patterns of sound change.

Consonants. Rather than continue to discuss individual sounds of Old and Middle English, let us see if there are any general statements that can be made about the changes in pronunciation. Several of the examples used above have indicated that the sounds we find in many Old English words are not the same sounds that occur in the Middle or Modern English forms of the same word. A few sounds have been lost entirely: the /ȳ/ sound of Old English kyning, and the /x/ sound of Old English sohte and Middle English mihte has disappeared from Modern English though it has left its mark in the spelling of such words as sought and might. Other sounds have been modified: the /r/ sound of Old and Middle English was "trilled" (as in modern Scottish or German pronunciation), but the /r/ sound is not trilled in most Modern English dialects. And another sound has been added: the /ž/ sound in Modern English measure (pronounced /mežər/) was not found in either Old or Middle English. But on the whole, the actual gain or loss of individual sounds has been relatively small.

We can say, in general, that most of the consonants in Old and Middle English are still present in Modern English and are still spelled in much the same way. In individual words, of course, consonant sounds have been lost: the /w/ in sword, who, and two, the /l/ in calm, balm, and calf, and the /b/ in comb and tomb. But losses from individual words are a far different matter from losses of sounds from the language itself. The loss of the high front vowel /ȳ/ in words like kyning and cyðan is not restricted to just these words; the sound /ȳ/ does not occur at all in Modern English.

The Great Vowel Shift. The vowel sounds of Old and Middle English seem to have remained fairly stable during those periods. It is the period between Middle and Early Modern English that produced revolutionary changes in the English vowels. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries most of the vowels of English shifted their values. This series of sound changes is often referred to as "The Great Vowel Shift." Its effect upon the pronunciation of English is very important. In fact, the shift in vowel sounds may account for some of the trouble that people have with English spelling. The vowel sounds in entire classes of words have changed. For example, the vowel sound spelled with the letter a or e in 1400 is not likely to be the same vowel sound spelled by those letters in Modern English.

The following chart will give you an idea of how certain vowel sounds have changed over the last 1200 years. On the left in each column are some words spelled as they were in each period. Between the slanting lines is the approximate pronunciation in each period.

Old English		Middle English		Modern English	
clǣne	/klǣne/	clene	/klænə/	clean	/klīn/
tēð	/tēθ/	teeth	/tēθ/	teeth	/tīθ/
hȳdan	/hȳdan/	hide	/hīdə/	hide	/hayd/
bāt	/bāt/	bote	/bɔ̄tə/(d)	boat	/bōt/
tōð	/tōθ/	tooth	/tōθ/	tooth	/tūθ/
hūs	/hūs/	hous	/hūs/	house	/haws/

(d) The vowel sound in Middle English bote requires an additional symbol. It is like the vowel sound in Modern English law and cawed, but it is also long--that is, it takes longer to say it than the present-day vowel sound. The bar over the "open o" (ɔ̄) indicates that the sound is long. We cannot write it as /ō/ since this would imply a vowel like that of low.

Examine the vowel sounds in the chart above. Notice that most of the vowel sounds do not change as they go from Old into Middle English. But in every one of the six words in the Middle English column the pronunciation of the central vowel changes as it develops into Modern English. The spelling, however, remains almost the same. It is not in just the individual words listed above that these vowel changes took place. Hundreds of other words having the same vowel sounds were changed in exactly the same way:

ise /īs/ became ice /ays/,
soone /sonə/ became soon /sūn/,
mouthe /mūð/ became mouth /mawθ/,
and so on.

The first word in the chart (clæne) went through an intermediate change which is not shown. You may remember that in 1600 the word clean was pronounced /klēn/ not /klīn/. Several other words belong to this group: tea, east, eat, breath, and heath, for example. During the time of Shakespeare every one of these words had the vowel sound /ē/, as in tape, rather than the present-day /ī/ sound. Can you recall some of the other sounds that changed during the period extending from 1600 to the present?

A few vowel sounds are a bit unstable even today. For instance, our chart listed the word tooth as an illustration of the change from Old and Middle English /ō/ to Modern English /ū/. Some words spelled with the same "double o" have not kept the /ū/ sound. The word foot does not have an /ū/ sound, but rather an /u/ sound, as in put. In some dialects of American English, the word root can be pronounced as either /rut/ or /rūt/. And the word blood, pronounced as /blūd/ in Shakespeare's time, is pronounced /bləd/ today. Take an informal poll among your friends to see if they all agree with you in your pronunciation of words like roof, root, hoop, and coop. You will probably find the same variation between the vowels /u/ and /ū/ that was mentioned above. In some parts of the country three different pronunciations of soot exist side by side.

The changes in English sounds are much more complex than our discussion here has suggested. Our presentation has been intended only as an illustration of the various changes in pronunciation that have taken place within our language. One other change in pronunciation--the loss of final "e"--will be discussed in the section dealing with changes in English grammar.

Causes of sound change. It is one thing to list changes in pronunciation, but it is quite another matter to explain why those changes took place. Generally, we can say only that linguists have shown that the sounds of a language do change in very regular ways. From the analysis of written records, they can identify a particular sound in an Old English word (for example, the /ȳ/ in mys); they can identify a different sound in the Middle English word for the same thing (the /ī/ in mys, pronounced /mīs/); and they can identify still another sound in the Modern English word (the /ay/ in mice pronounced /mays/). Beyond this, they can illustrate that this same change took place in a whole class of words with the same long vowel sound:

Old English fȳr /fȳr/,
Middle English fyr /fīr/,
Modern English fire /fayr/,
and so on.

Thus they show that sound change is a regular process. Even the apparent exceptions can be shown to be regular variations from the established pattern. But as to the causes for such change, the linguist can offer little explanation. He can merely state the facts of change.

Some sound changes appear to come about because of the way sounds are combined in a particular word. The following words illustrate changes which might have been brought about by the presence of certain sounds in combination: Old English acsian became Modern English ask, bridd became bird, peregrinus became pelegrim and finally pilgrim, and hlaford became lord. But why speakers of English years ago changed their pronunciation of these words no one really knows.

Linguists do not predict sound changes, but they observe consistent patterns in the changes that have already taken place. If there had been a trained linguist with the Germanic tribes who settled in England in the fifth century, he could not have predicted how their pronunciation would change in future years. What he could predict for certain is that the sounds of their language would change. The exact course of language change is dictated by factors that men cannot foresee. Of first importance in the case of change in English was the fact that from the fifth century onwards, it had a history of its own, isolated to some extent from that of the related dialects and languages on the continent. One dialect, cut off from other dialects of the same language, changes in ways that are often unlike those changes taking place in the other dialects. The sound changes that have taken place in English are not the same sound changes that have occurred in the languages spoken by the Germanic cousins of the English across the English Channel and the North Sea. You will study the relationships among these languages when you begin your work with the comparative method, the final section of this unit.

Exercise 2.

Part A: Complete Part A of Exercise 1. That is, indicate which sound (or sounds) each of the unfamiliar letters or combinations of letters stood for in Old and Middle English. Another example follows:

Letters	Words in which it is used	Pronunciation
g	geliefe (believed)	/y/ as in yet
	Āngelcynn (England)	/g/ as in get

Part B: Look through the Old and Middle English selections in the Francis text for words that look familiar. Then check your dictionary to discover the modern form of the word. Look up the modern word that you suspect to be the right one. The etymology of the word (the information enclosed within brackets in the dictionary entry) will confirm your guess, since it lists the Old and Middle English forms of any native word. The following example may help you:

Old English Word	Pronunciation	Modern English Word
ælmihtegum	/ælmixtigum/	almighty
lare	/lare/	lore, which has been largely replaced by learning (also used to mean teaching)

Discussion Questions

1. How would you answer someone who made the following statement about English? "The main problem with the English language is that it is unphonetic." (Literally, not according to the sound or pronunciation.) He is probably trying to get at the fact that letters often stand for more than one sound in English writing and that a single sound can be represented in several different ways. How would you clarify his thinking? Would you first need to help him distinguish between the sounds of a language and the set of symbols used in writing that language?

2. The process of sound change brings up the problem of the "correctness" of your own pronunciation. How do you know which pronunciation of a word is "correct" or "socially acceptable" in your community? Where do the writers of your dictionary get their information?

3. Is there only one "correct" spelling listed for every word in your dictionary? Are there alternate spellings listed for any words that you know? Where do the dictionary writers go for their information about "correct" spellings? Look up the following words: parakeet, chantey, finicky, caliph, cozy, usable, and pinochle. What are the alternate forms of these words? Is one of the spellings right and are the others wrong? Explain.

4. How does British spelling differ from American spelling? Your dictionary will usually have a summary of these differences in the introductory section. Try to summarize these differences in a brief list. Do these spelling differences usually reflect a difference in pronunciation also? That is, is there any consistent relation between the differences in spelling and the differences of pronunciation in the two dialects?

5. How might you reply to someone who corrects your pronunciation of the word what? He claims that you are pronouncing it as /wat/, and it should be pronounced /hwat/, according to his standards. To support his argument, he mentions that the h in the spelling indicates that the /w/ sound should be "aspirated," as /hw/. Before you begin your answer to him, it may prove helpful to know that Wyld's Universal dictionary, which records only British "Received Standard English," gives just the /w/ pronunciation. The /hw/ pronunciation is current only in Scotland and Ireland, and therefore--in the eyes of linguistic snobs--inferior. Both pronunciations, however, are common in America.

C. The grammar of Old and Middle English

Some knowledge of Modern English grammar will be essential in your study of Old and Middle English grammar. You have learned that a grammar consists of rules that account for the sentences of a language. These rules are of two kinds: (1) phrase structure rules that account for the deep (or underlying) structures and (2) transformation rules that change these underlying structures into the sentences we use. In two other units, History of English: Parts I and II, you found that Shakespeare constructed English sentences using very nearly the same set of rules we use today. The differences between Modern and Early Modern English, though sometimes very obvious, usually involved the forms of words and, in some instances, the order in which the words were arranged. To say it another way, the differences between Shakespeare's language and our own involve superficial matters--that is, surface structure not deep structure. What are some of these differences? Perhaps the following checklist will help you remember: (1) pronoun forms, (2) verb forms, (3) use of the auxiliary items be + ing, have + en, and modals, (4) word order in yes/no questions, negatives, and commands, and (5) the comparison of adjectives. Can you think of examples that show these differences?

In this unit you will examine two aspects of Old and Middle English grammar. First, you will study some very obvious surface differences, the use of inflections. Next, you will study the development of the English auxiliary system, a part of the underlying structure of English sentences. Thus you begin by studying surface structure and then move to the study of deep structure. Keep in mind that statements about Old and Middle English grammar cannot be as accurate as our statements about Modern English. After all, we cannot test our generalizations by asking native speakers "Can you say this?" nor can we consult our own intuition in these matters. Written records are all we have, and there is no proof that these records contain all the possible structures of Old, Middle, or Early Modern English.

Your supplementary text, The History of English by W. Nelson Francis, contains selections from Old, Middle, Early Modern, and Modern English which you will be asked to examine frequently. Where these selections do not have the kind of examples we need, other sentences will be provided here.

1. The use of inflections

Modern English. What are the underlined items in the following words? That is, what do you call suffixes like these?

boy's	Bob's	girls'	
boys	boxes	rocks	leaflets
big	bigger	biggest	
rides	likes	bribes	lifts
riding	liking	bribing	lifting
riden	liked	bribed	lifted

What function does each underlined item have? Can you define the term inflection? What languages that you know of make greater use of inflections than Modern English does? Are the changes in the following words also called inflections?

sing	sang	sung
bring	brought	
go	went	gone

Do you know of any prefixes which act as inflections in Modern English? Compare, for example, the German verb forms with ge such as gedacht (to think) and getrunken (to drink).

Old English. What endings occur most frequently in the Old English selection on page 26 of the Francis text? Do these endings seem to be serving the same sort of function as the endings on the Modern English words listed above? Does there seem to be more (or fewer) inflections in the Old English selection than the Modern English translation on the following page (p. 27)? Look at the following sentences written in Old English: (They have been constructed simply to show how the system of inflections worked.)

(1) sē lufsum guma lufað þa glade hlǣfdigan
(The amiable man loves the cheerful lady.)

(2) þa lufsume guman lufiað þa gladu hlǣfdigan
(The amiable men love the cheerful ladies.)

(3) sēo lufsumu hlǣfdige lufað þone glædne guman
(The amiable lady loves the cheerful man.)

(4) þā lufsume hlǣfdigan lufiað þā glade guman
(The amiable ladies love the cheerful men.)

Which words in the Old English sentences show inflectional changes from one sentence to another or from one position in the sentence to another? Which words in the NP's show inflectional changes when the NP is an object rather than the subject of the verb to love? Which words show inflectional changes when the NP contains a plural noun rather than a singular noun? Which words in the Modern English translations show the same kind of variation? Does the article change form? Does the adjective change form? What conclusions can you draw about the relative frequency of occurrence of inflections in Old and Modern English sentences?

Middle English. What endings occur most frequently in the Middle English selection on page 30 of the Francis text? Do there seem to be more inflections in this selection than the one on page 26? Do you find any inflections ending in m? (Do not count those found in the Latin phrase which appears as a quotation.) How many do you find that end in n? Are there any inflectional endings which have a vowel other than e in them? How many times does e appear at the end of words? What conclusions can you draw from a comparison of the kinds of inflections that occur in Old and Middle English? Can you see any pattern that these changes fit into?

Look at the phonetic transcription of the first few lines of the Middle English selection (page 16 of this unit). How are the words that are spelled with a final e pronounced? That is, are these final e's "silent" as they are in many Modern English words, or do they stand for a final vowel sound? The Modern English selections on pages 34 and 38 of the Francis text also contain many words ending in e. Do you believe that this e was "silent" in the speech of those times? Is the e really "silent" in Modern English words like cute, cure, site, cope, bathe, and breathe? How would you pronounce these words if the final e were dropped?

How do you account for the fact that Old English had so many different kinds of inflections and Modern English has little more than a half dozen? Has the loss of inflections simplified our language or made it more complex?

Did you identify any prefix in either the Old or Middle English selection that seemed to function as an inflection? For instance, geðencean (line 20 of Alfred's Preface) and imaked (line 13 of the Ancrene Riwle) are the verbs think and make, respectively. Could it be possible that the prefix ge and the prefix i (also spelled y, as in y-born) are related historically? How could you prove that they are? For example, how could you show that i or y is the Middle English form of the prefix that was spelled ge in Old English?

Exercise 3.

Make a list of those suffixes which are still used as inflections in Modern English. Next to each one, indicate its pronunciation and its function. For example: (e)d, pronounced /d, t, əd/, used to indicate the past tense and the en form of most verbs.

2. Changes in the auxiliary

The auxiliary in Modern English. What items are included as part of the structure called *Aux* (for auxiliary) in our grammar of Modern English? Try to write the phrase structure rules that specify the various parts of *Aux.* Which items are optional? Are any of the items obligatory? What is the order of these elements if they appear together in the same sentence? Or is it impossible for all parts of the auxiliary to appear together?

The auxiliary in Early Modern English. Do the rules of our Modern English auxiliary account for the following sentences from Shakespeare's play, *Julius Caesar*?

(1) "I *did* hear him groan."

(2) ". . . He *draws* Mark Antony out of the way."

(3) "Cinna, where *haste* you so?"

(4) "And this man/*Is* now *become* a god. . ."

(5) ". . . I *durst* not laugh. . ."

Are any items of the Modern English auxiliary not present in Shakespeare's language? Which items appear to be used in different ways? Is the word *do* a part of the Modern English auxiliary? If not, where does it enter the grammar? The word *do*, as illustrated in the first example above, seems to be a part of the auxiliary in Early Modern English. How could you account for the appearance of *do* in the rules specifying the auxiliary? How could you account for the other differences such as in the use of *be + ing* and *have + en*? Try to write a set of phrase structure rules that would account for Shakespeare's use of the auxiliary. If you need more examples, any Shakespearean play will contain the sentences you want. The list of items that could occur as modals in Early Modern English would have to include a word like *dare* (past tense *durst*) to account for sentence (5).

The auxiliary in Old English. Try to compare the word order in the sentences in the Old English selection on page 26 of the Francis text with the word order in the translation on the following page. Pick out short sentences, subordinated or not, and see what order the parts are arranged in. For instance, what is the order of the subject NP, the verb, and the object NP in Modern English sentences? What changes take place in this order when we ask questions, embed one sentence into another, or make the sentence negative? When we embed a sentence like (a) into a sentence like (b), what change in order takes place?

(a) They have bought the car.
(b) The car is expensive. ⟹ The car *which they have bought* is expensive.

The object in (a), the car, now stands in front of the subject, they. Attaching wh to the object requires that it be moved to the front of the sentence; wh + the car becomes which. If we make a question out of (a), we get sentences like "Have they bought the car?" and "What have they bought?" Word order in Modern English sentences is rearranged by transformation rules. For purposes of this unit, let us assume that the base structures of Old English are generated in the same order as we have in Modern English. What will account for the differences between Old English word order and Modern English word order? In what part of the grammar of Old English will most of the differences between it and Modern English grammar lie?

Look at the following sentence:

(1) "& hu man utanbordes wisdom and lare hieder on lond sohte."

"and how people [from] outside wisdom and learning here in [this] land sought"

The literal translation of this sentence does not turn out to be an acceptable Modern English sentence. How would you rephrase it to make it well-formed? How does the order of the Old English sentence differ from the Modern English version? What kind of rule will reposition the verb sohte (to seek) at the end of the sentence? What auxiliaries are present in this sentence? Is there a modal, have + en, or be + ing? To which word is the auxiliary attached? It might help you to know that the Old English word for seek is sēcan; the past tense form is sohte.

Study the following examples of Old English and try to formulate rules which would account for these sentences, especially the underlined parts that function like those items we call the auxiliary and verb in Modern English grammar:

(2) ". . . æt he wære cumen."
"that he was come"

(3) ". . . & him æfterfylgende wæs."
"and him after-following was"

(4) "Ac wē willað ēow ēac fremsumlice on giestliðnesse onfōn. . ."
"But we will you also kindly in hospitality receive"

(5) "Ic sceal feohtende beon"
"I shall fighting be"

(6) "Ic sceal gefuhten habban"
"I shall fought have"

Rewrite these sentences using the word order of Modern English. Your teacher will help you formulate rules to account for these Old English sentences. After you have done this, try to point out the differences and and the similarities between the auxiliary systems of Old and Middle English.

Are there any other differences in the grammar of Old English (besides those noted in the auxiliary) that you discovered in your study of King Alfred's Preface? You realize, of course, that you would need much more data than is given here if you were really trying to write a grammar of Old English. Your purpose in studying this unit is not to write a grammar of Old English but to identify one specific way in which the grammar of Old English differs from that of Modern English.

The auxiliary in Middle English. Compare the word order in the Middle English selection (page 30 of the Francis text) with the order found in the translation on the following page. Does the word order in Middle English seem closer to Modern English order than that found in the Old English selection? Again, select short sentences, subordinated or not, and try to find where the differences in order occur. Look at the following sentences from the Ancrene Riwle:

(1) ". . . et alle ancren muwen wel holden one riwle. . ."
"that all anchoresses[e] may well hold one rule"

(2) ". . .alle muwen & owen holden one riwle. . ."
"all may and ought [to] hold one rule"

Is the order of parts in these examples different in any way from Modern English order? It may help you to know that the Middle English modals are conn, mow, moot, shal, wol, and ow. Which ones of these are related to the Modern English modals: can, may, must, shall and will?

Study the following sentences from the English of 1400, Middle English as written by the English poet, Geoffrey Chaucer. The English of Chaucer's time is not exactly like the language of the Ancrene Riwle. Perhaps you can even point out some of the more obvious differences. Try to formulate a set of rules which would account for the auxiliary and verb forms which occur in these sentences.

(3) ". . .that his houndes have him caught. . ."
"that his hounds have him caught"

(4) "Whan that Arcite to Thebes comen was. . ."
"when that Arcite to Thebes come was"

(5) "Ful many a riche contree hadde he wonne. . ."
"full many a rich country had he won"

(6) ". . .When she hadde swowned. . ."
"when she had swooned"

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[e] Anchoresses are women who live apart from society for religious meditation.

(7) "Er it were day. . ./She was arisen. . ."
"ere it were day. . .she was arisen

(8) "Arcite is riden anon unto the toun. . ."
"Arcite is riden directly to the town"

(9) ". . .Whan he was come almoost unto the toun. . ."
"when he was come almost to the town"

(10) ". . .We han ben waytinge al this fourtenight. . ."
"we have been waiting all this fortnight"

(11) "As for the Prist that dede areste me. . ."
"as for the priest that did arrest me"

(12) ". . .than I may do wryte at thys tyme."
"than I may do write at this time"

(13) "He. . .hath. . ./Doon make an auter. . ."
"he. . .has. . .done make an altar"

(14) "He leet the feste of his nativitee/Doon cryen thurghout
Sarray his citee. . ."
"He let the feast of his nativity do cried throughout
Surrey his city"
(Don cryen can be translated as be announced.)

(15) ". . .I wol don sacrifice, and fyres bete."
"I will do sacrifice, and fires kindle"

(16) "Fayn wolde I doon yow mirthe, wiste I how."
"fain would I do you mirth, knew I how"

Which of these sentences need some rearrangement of parts in order to be well-formed sentences of Modern English? Write out the Modern English equivalents of each of these sentences. Be especially careful with those sentences containing the auxiliary do and the main verb do.

What are the parts of the Middle English auxiliary? What restrictions are there upon their occurrence? That is, can all parts occur together in a single sentence? Which part of the auxiliary is obligatory? Which ones are optional? The Middle English auxiliary contains the word do. How does this differ from the Modern English use of do? Try to formulate a set of rules that take into account all the restrictions upon the various parts of the Middle English auxiliary. Your teacher will give you help with the actual formulation of the rules.

Review.

Can you make any general statement about the use of inflections in each of the three main periods of English history? Would you describe the changes in the inflectional system from Old to Modern English as being a general reduction of inflections? Why? or why not?

Trace the history of the items in the Modern English auxiliary--tense, modals, *have* + *en*, and *be* + *ing*--from Old English, through Middle English, to Modern English. For instance, has *tense* been present in each of these earlier stages? Has it always been obligatory, as it is in Modern English? Have there always been modals in each of these earlier stages of English? What are the Old and Middle English forms of the Modern English modals: *can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*, and *must*? What other words (besides the related forms of these five) have acted as modals in English? What were the forms of *have* + *en* and *be* + *ing* in Old English and in Middle English? Have these members of the auxiliary always been optionally present?

The word *do* has an especially interesting history. When does it come into English as a part of the auxiliary? (Note that the verb *do* has been present in English for as long as we have records of the language.) Although *do* is not a part of the Modern English auxiliary, it does enter sentences in several kinds of constructions. What are these constructions that require the use of *do*? Can you recall the transformation rule that puts *do* into sentences when *tense* is separated from *modal*, *have*, *be*, or *verb*?

Finally, can you make a general statement about the changes that have taken place in the English auxiliary system over the past 1200 years? Compare the sets of rules that account for the auxiliary in Old, Middle, and Modern English. Do these rules show great differences? Or are the differences relatively minor?

D. The vocabulary of Old and Middle English

In two previous units, you studied the differences between Shakespeare's vocabulary and our own Modern English vocabulary. Do you recall the three kinds of vocabulary change that were illustrated in those earlier units? Each of the different kinds of change will be reviewed here. Examining the changes that have taken place in the English vocabulary will serve as an excellent review of both the external and internal history of our language. The major events in the history of English and of the peoples who have spoken it have left their marks in the lexicon.

Kinds of vocabulary change. Look back again to the quotation from King Alfred's *Preface* on page 26 of the Francis text. Line 1 contains the Old English word *kyning*. The Modern English form of this word is, of course, *king*. This word, although changed in form and pronunciation, has remained in the English vocabulary for as long as we have written records of the language. But nearly half the words found in our quotation from Old English are no longer found in our vocabulary. Among the more obvious losses are unfamiliar words like *godcundra* 'sacred orders,' *Angelcynn* 'England,' *wige* 'war, *hersumedon* 'obeyed,' and *utanbordes* 'outside.' These words have been dropped from use and others have replaced them. There are other words in the *Preface* that may seem strange to you, but many of these are words that have remained in the English vocabulary and have undergone changes in both form and meaning. The word gesæliglica (line 4) contains the root sælig, which we now know as silly. The word folces (line 6) is clearly an older form of the modern word folk and still means roughly the same thing--'people.' Similarly, the word begiondan (line 18) is an older form of the modern word beyond, which has nearly the same meaning as the former word had in the ninth century. The Old English word steorfan (Modern English starve) originally meant simply 'to die,' but the meaning of the modern word starve is 'to die from hunger.' Just for practice, try to identify the modern forms of the following words taken from Alfred's Preface: gretan, ðæt, ægðer, tida, dagum, sceoldan, understondan, monige, and feawa. The translation of the Preface found on page 27 is a handy reference, and your dictionary will verify your guesses. Thus we see that words can be lost entirely from a language and that other words continue to exist in the language often in a different form and possibly with different meanings.

Words can also be added to the lexicon of a language from several different sources. Native speakers can make up new words from the stock of words and affixes that are available in the language. The Old English word mod, which referred to 'heart, mind or spirit,' served as the root of many new words. If you added the adjective ending ig, it became modig, meanin 'spirited, bold or high-minded.' Adding the adverbial ending lice produced modiglice, which meant 'proudly or boldly.' Other words which came from the same root form are modfull 'haughty,' modcræftig 'intelligent,' and ofermodig 'proud.' But, as you will notice in the selections from Middle and Modern English, our vocabulary has been expanded by means other than just making up new words out of old ones. Many languages have contributed words to the English vocabulary, especially French, Latin, and Greek. In the years since the Norman Conquest (1066), the English language has been particularly receptive to borrowings from other languages.

The Old English selection from Alfred's Preface (890 A.D.) contains nearly all native words. Native words are those which are found in the oldest stages of English and for which no evidence exists to indicate that they have been borrowed from some other language. Folc, kyning, and habban (and their modern forms) are examples of native words. Webster's Third International Dictionary gives the following etymology (origin and development of a word) for the word folk: [M.E., fr. O.E. folc; akin to OHG folc people, band of warriors;. . .] The first part of this entry tells you all you need to know in order to classify folk as a native word. From this entry you know that the word folk was found in Middle English and that the Middle English form is a descendant from Old English folc. The rest of the entry gives words in other languages to which the English word is related, but it does not indicate that folc was borrowed from any other language. The native elements in our vocabulary can be traced in direct line of descent to the oldest stages of English and,ultimately, to the common parent of all Germanic languages. Borrowed words, on the other hand, entered English at some point in its history and then usually took on characteristics of those words already in the language. For instance, the recent borrowing, sputnik (from Russian), takes on English characteristics such as the plural s (sputniks) rather than the Russian plural *sputniki*. Also, when a word is borrowed the pronunciation is usually changed to resemble English pronunciation.

Sometimes the borrowed word is itself a borrowed word in the language from which it entered English. The word *church* (Middle English *chirche* and Old English *cirice*) entered Old English through contacts with the Romans on the continent even before the English migrations had begun. But the Romans had borrowed the word from the Greek language, in which the word had the meaning of 'lord's house.' Similarly, the Latin word *manual* entered Middle English through a borrowing from French. The borrowed word forced the native word *handboc* (handbook) into a kind of retirement until the nineteenth century when *handbook* began to be used as a synonym for *manual*. In Modern English we have two words, *pipe* and *fife*, that are both descendants of the Late Latin word *pipa*. The word *pipe* comes to us directly through Old English *pīpa*, a borrowing from Latin. But the word *fife* probably comes to us from Old French *fifre* which had been borrowed from Old High German. The source of the Old High German word *pfifa* was, of course, the Latin *pipa*. It is impossible here to describe all the various and roundabout ways that words enter our vocabulary. Your dictionary has the information; all you need to do is look for it.

Most of the words in the English lexicon can be divided into three groups: (1) native words such as *heorte* (heart), (2) borrowed words such as *cattle* (from French), and (3) newly-formed words which have been made up at various times from elements already in the language. Examples of this last type are Old English *hwælweg* (whaleway or whaleroad, 'the sea') and Modern English *afterthought* or *overthrow*. Do you have any idea of how many native words remain in the English vocabulary? Which kind of word is most numerous in our lexicon--the native or the borrowed? Which kind of word is used most frequently in writing--the native or the borrowed? Perhaps you can discover the answers to these questions by doing a little research on your own. (See Exercise 4, page 32.)

The effects of the increasingly common practice of word borrowing can be seen in the examples of Middle English (page 30 of the Francis text), Early Modern English (page 34), and Modern English (page 38). The selection from the twelfth century has just six French borrowings, but the piece from Caxton's *Preface* written in the fifteenth century contains sixty-one words of French origin. What percentage is this of the total number of words used on the entire page? The Modern English selection from Boswell's *Life of Johnson* reveals still other evidence of vocabulary borrowing. What percentage of the words in this selection are native as opposed to those borrowed from some other language?

Vocabulary borrowings by period. Review carefully pages 7-19 in the Marckwardt text, beginning with the section entitled "The Development of the English Vocabulary." The borrowings are grouped according to the phase of English history in which the words entered our language. The kinds of words borrowed during each period seem to reflect, to some extent, the type of contacts existing between the English and the neighboring peoples. For example, the Scandinavian borrowings of the eighth through the eleventh centuries are words standing for common things or actions such as skin, skirt, egg, take, call, law, and hit. The relationships between the English and their Viking attackers seem to have been of the most intimate kind--the kind you would expect when two groups merge into one. On the other hand, the word fresco, borrowed from Italian during the Renaissance, reflects the superior position of Italian art during this period. The highly cultivated members of English society borrowed this word, for the common Englishman probably had little contact with or interest in Italian art. Similarly, the numerous borrowings from Latin and Greek during the Renaissance were made primarily by scholars, and the kinds of words they borrowed reflected their particular interests. The ordinary Englishman living during the Renaissance period was probably not aware that "fancy" words like retrograde, reciprocal, defunct, magnificate, and turgidous had entered the English vocabulary during his lifetime or that they had ever entered English at all.

The section dealing with American English (pages 15-18 of the Marckwardt text) emphasizes the effect that changing environment has upon a language. The relative isolation of American English from the influences of British English has led to the development of different dialects. Pronunciation differences are perhaps the most obvious distinction between British and American English, but vocabulary differences are not hard to find. Englishmen say motor car rather than automobile or car, lorry rather than truck, petrol rather than gasoline or gas, and bonnet rather than hood. Can you think of other British words which differ from the American words for the same things? The new words entering American English reflected a new land, new interests, new lives. Examine the new words listed in the Marckwardt text. From which languages have Americans borrowed most extensively? Have some of the words that entered American English also found their way into British speech? Would an Englishman know what you were referring to if you used the words hotdog, hamburger, or jeep? Can you discover any borrowed words that have entered English through some other dialect than British or American (for example, Australian) and have found their way into your own dialect? Do you know what a jumbuck is? Most Australians would tell you immediately that it is a sheep. But you may not realize that kangaroo and boomerang are also of Australian origin. Your unabridged dictionary is your best reference when you have become something of a "word detective." Also of great help is a dictionary of etymologies, a book that gives you complete information about the origins and development of words. See if your school library has one, and then use it.

Exercise 4.

Part A: Make a list of borrowings (as many as you wish) that have entered English during each of the major phases of its history. The major divisions in your list would probably include the following: Continental borrowings (before 450 A.D.), Celtic influence, Christianization of

England, Viking invasions, French influence, Latin and Greek borrowings in the Renaissance, borrowings entering American English, etc. Use the Marckwardt text for a few examples of each; then consult your dictionary and other sources to expand your list.

Part B: As a class project, determine the number of native words and the number of borrowed words in the Early Modern English selection on page 34 of the Francis text. The first time through the selection, do not count more than once those words that are repeated several times. For instance, the word and will likely appear more than once, but you are to record it as only one occurrence. Do the same for the Modern English selection on page 38. Calculate the percentages of native words versus borrowed words. Which type predominates? Now change the procedure and count every word as a separate occurrence, even though some of them may appear many times. Does this new method of counting alter the ratio of native to borrowed words? Perhaps your teacher will want to assign a line or two to each pupil and then have a small committee compile the results of your word counts.

Part C: The most frequently used English words (in order of decreasing frequency) are the following: the, of, and, to, a(n), in, is, that, for, it, with, as, was, on, be, he, by, this, are, and at. Are most of these words native or borrowed? Would the answer to this question have any bearing upon the results you obtained in Part B above? In a brief paragraph, explain what you have discovered about the ratio of native to borrowed words in the English vocabulary and about the relative frequency of occurrence of these two classes of words in Modern English writing.

Part D: Choose a word that you have reason to believe may have an interesting history. Steward, style, and starve, for instance, have interesting histories. Look it up in the unabridged dictionary, if one is available in your classroom or library. If your school is fortunate enough to have a copy of the Oxford English Dictionary (several volumes), use it for your investigation. List the different meanings given for a word in the order they have entered English. That is, list the oldest meaning of the word first and the most recent meaning last. This is the order found in the Oxford English Dictionary, Webster's Third International Dictionary, and others. Check a dictionary of slang (if you have one available) for extended uses of the word. Next, list the earlier forms of the word, if there are any. For instance, the Middle or Old English forms and any variant Modern forms of the word would be included. You will find this information in the part of the dictionary entry given to etymology (usually enclosed within brackets [ ]). Present your findings (part or all) to the class in a short speech. Perhaps your teacher will prefer instead to have you report your findings in a paper.

Part E: The effect of a borrowed word often goes far beyond the simple addition of one word to the lexicon of the language. Other words are often formed from it by means of inflections and other types of affixes or by compounding with other words. For example, the word adapt was borrowed from Latin during the Renaissance and since has given rise to several derivatives: adaption, adaptable, adaptability, adapter, adaptive, adaptometer, etc. Select five words from your list of borrowed words (Part A of this exercise) and list all the other words you can find that have been derived from it. The etymology of the words you list will tell you whether they have been derived from the same root or not.

Discussion Questions

1. How would you reply to a person who had made the following remark: "I'm going to teach myself French this summer. I've bought a French dictionary, and I'm going to learn every word in it." He seems to confuse language with the lexicon of that language. A language is more than a list of words; it is, among other things, a set of rules for combining those words into sentences. How would you clarify his thinking?

2. Which of the foreign languages taught in your school is most like English? Your classmates are likely to have quite different opinions about this question.

3. From your study of the history of English grammar, would you judge that English grammar has become simpler in the last 1200 years? Or do you feel that it has become more complex? With respect to the number and kind of inflectional forms, has English become more (or less) complex? In terms of the make-up of the auxiliary system, is English simpler or more complex?

4. You have studied changes in both the grammar and vocabulary of English. In which of these two areas is change more frequent? That is, does the grammar of English change as frequently as the contents of its lexicon? In which of these two areas are changes likely to have the most extensive effect upon the language as a whole? In other words, which kind of change is more fundamental: (1) the addition or loss of items from the vocabulary, or (2) the modification of rules which govern the ways these words can be put together?

IV. The Comparative Method

You were asked previously in this unit to suggest which language (or languages) most closely resembled English. Without doubt, you and your classmates disagreed as to the "correct" answer to that question. There are very good reasons for disagreement. In one way or another, English resembles nearly every foreign language taught in your school and several others which are not. In some cases the resemblances are superficial; in others they are more fundamental. The "correct" answer to the question mentioned above involves more than just a simple statement as to which languages are most closely related to English. You would also need to know what it means to say that languages are "related." You might even want to know where the linguist gets his information about the relationships among languages. Do you believe that the student of language history would need to look at just the modern forms of these languages? Would it be necessary to look at older stages of these languages as well?

Similarities among modern languages. On the basis of vocabulary items alone, you were probably convinced that many modern languages are more or less "related." Resemblances like those in the following chart can be very convincing:

hand	*winter*	*drink*
English - hand	English - winter	English - drink
Dutch - hand	Dutch - winter	Dutch - drinken
German - Hand	German - Winter	German - trinken
Danish - haand	Danish - vinter	Danish - drikke
Swedish - hand	Swedish - vinter	Swedish - dricka

The spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of the words listed above show a remarkable similarity among the five languages. How do such resemblances come to be? Why are so many words in the five languages listed above so much like one another? The examples are taken from five languages which are sufficiently unlike each other that you (as a native speaker of English) probably could not understand a native speaker of any of the other four. Of course, if you have learned any of these languages, the previous statement is not true. But why is it that the vocabulary of English, Dutch, German, Danish, and Swedish are so much alike? Could it be the result of borrowing words from one language into another? Is it merely the result of "linguistic accident"? People interested in language have been asking themselves questions like these for as long as man can tell. Some explanations, however, are more reasonable than others. In this unit you will study one of the possible explanations of the fact that many modern languages do resemble one another in many ways.

Let us look at the first possibility. Could it simply be accidental that the same combinations of sounds occur in different languages? For instance, the sequence of sound [kip] occurs in English (meaning, among other things, 'a gymnastic feat') and in Dutch (meaning 'a chicken'). Similarly, the sequence of sounds [pak] means 'a suit of clothes' in Dutch, but in English the same sounds stand for a 'pimple' or 'a pit in the skin left by such a pimple.' It is most likely that phonetic similarities like those seen in our two examples are the result of accident. That is, there seems to be no relationship between the two words. But when both *sound* and *meaning* coincide in two or more languages, the probability is very low that such resemblances are due to accident. In the chart on the previous page, both the pronunciation and the meaning of three words (*hand*, *winter*, *drink*) are seen to be very nearly the same in five different languages. In instances like these, we must look for explanations other than pure accident.

We might ask ourselves another question: Has the word been borrowed from one language into the others? At this point we are forced to look beyond the present-day forms of these languages for an answer. For if the word *hand*, for example, is a borrowed word in any or all of the languages included in the list, then some evidence of this borrowing will turn up in earlier forms of these languages. But, in the case of the word *hand*, such evidence of borrowing cannot be found. The earliest forms of each of these languages (English, Dutch, German, Danish, and Swedish) contain some form of the word *hand*, in very nearly its present meaning. In other words, there is no evidence to suggest that the word existed first in one of these languages and then had been borrowed by speakers of the other four. The next question you might have asked yourself is this: What if the borrowing took place before any of these languages were written? Can we test such a hypothesis? Obviously we cannot, but we can seek for other evidence and other explanations.

The borrowing of vocabulary items from other languages is (and has been) a common practice among speakers of English and other modern languages. We do not have to go far in our study of English before we find that words like *hickory*, *moose*, *mesa*, and *bayou* entered English after it had been carried across the Atlantic to North America in the seventeenth century. Similarly, words like *tobacco*, *sonata*, *bowsprit*, *studio*, and *sheik* were not present in earlier forms of English, and evidence exists to show that these words have been borrowed from other languages. Such borrowing accounts for much of the similarity between the English and French vocabularies. Political and legal terms, for instance, are very much the same in French and English: *nation*, *parliament*, *realm*, *crown*, *palace*, *plaintiff*, *defendant*, *verdict*, *jury*, and *judge*. These words were borrowed from French by speakers of English during the years following the Norman Conquest and are therefore not present in Old English. A word like *coffee* would seem to give evidence of a close relationship among such different languages as Turkish, English, Italian, and Finnish: *kahve*, *coffee*, *caffè*, and *kahvia*, respectively. However, the word has been borrowed from Turkish by speakers of numerous modern languages. The recency of the borrowing accounts for the fact that the word has undergone little or no change since its entry into these languages: German *Kaffee*, Dutch *koffie*, Swedish *kaffe*, French *café*, and Spanish *café*. The process of borrowing, then, accounts for much of the superficial similarity that we observe among modern languages.

But what about the problem we discovered earlier when we tried to find out why the English word *hand* is so very similar to the Dutch, German, Danish, and Swedish word for the same thing. The word *hand*, in some form or another, has existed in each of these languages for as long as we have written records of them. If we cannot show that the word has been borrowed from one language into the others, how are we to explain the similarity? Furthermore, what about other kinds of resemblance among modern languages such as in their grammar? Such similarities as identical patterns for indicating past tense in the verb system are equally as important evidence of relationship as are similarities in vocabulary. Many years ago, linguists devised a view of language that helps explain why many modern languages are more or less like one another.

Language families. One of the most useful ways of comparing modern languages is to think of them as belonging to "families." Like human families, there are both older and younger members in each family. There are parent languages, and there are offspring from these parent languages. When the linguist discovers a great many correspondences (or likenesses) between a pair of languages and when these correspondences cannot be explained in terms of borrowing or just accident, he assumes that there is a particular kind of historical connection between the two languages. The historical connection is this: the two languages have descended from a common parent-language. In support of his assumption, the linguist compares the two languages at every possible point of similarity. Consistent patterns of likeness in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary tend to support the theory that the two languages have a common origin--that they are two modern descendants of an older parent-language. But like the division of cells, once the parent-language has "divided itself" into two or more modern forms, the parent-language itself no longer exists. When a cell divides itself into two new cells, neither one can claim to be the older of the two. Thus modern forms of an older language are like "sisters." The older form of the language no longer exists as a "living" language after the division, although written records of it may continue to exist.

One of the best examples of this "splintering" process is the development of the "Romance" languages from Latin. "Romance" in this context refers to those modern languages derived from Low Latin or Vulgar Latin, as it is often called. These modern languages are, of course, French, Spanish, Italian, Provencal, Roumanian, Catalan, Sardinian, and Portuguese. The popular (that is, 'of the people') spoken Latin of the Romans has spread in its modern forms throughout the world, from Brazil to Western Europe. One linguist puts the relationship this way: "It is not unreasonable to say that Modern French is Vulgar Latin spoken by modern Frenchmen."

Vulgar Latin does not exist today, except in a few written records, but the modern forms of Vulgar Latin are spoken today by millions of people. The following words show the resemblances clearly:

	Latin	Italian	Spanish	French
'fact'	factum	fatto	hecho	fait
'milk'	lactem	latte	leche	lait
'eight'	octō	otto	ocho	huit
'nose'	nasum	naso	naso	nez
'head'	caput	capo	cabo	chef
'goat'	capram	capra	cabra	chèvre
'bean'	fabam	fava	haba	fève

The chart also shows several differences among these forms. Does this fact disprove the theory that the Romance languages have developed from Low Latin? The important thing to notice about the forms listed above is that the differences follow a pattern or system. In other words, the same differences appear in whole sets of words, not just in individual items. A great many more examples than we have given here would be necessary to illustrate these patterns of change, but let us look at a few of the more obvious ones. The Latin sound /k/ has undergone several different changes. When it is initial (the first sound in a word), the /k/ became /š/ in French (chef, chèvre) but remained /k/ in Spanish (cabo, cabra) and Italian (capo, capra). In other positions the Latin /k/ (1) disappeared in French (fait, lait), (2) assimilated to the following /t/ in

Italian (fatto, latte), and (3) became a different sound in Spanish with the loss of the following / /(hecho, leche). The first vowel sound, /a/, in Latin caput, capram, and fabam became /æ/ in Modern French but remained as /a/ in Italian and Spanish. Where the Latin word has the sound /p/, as in caput and capram, Spanish has the sound /b/. And where Latin has the sound /f/, as in fabam, French and Italian retain it, but Spanish does not. What other regularities can you discover in this limited list of examples? Try to formulate some rules of change based upon the examples given here and those additional examples which you might get from other sources. It is on the basis of patterned likenesses and differences such as those illustrated in this paragraph that linguists determine "relatedness" among languages. The relatedness among members of the Romance family of languages is just like that which exists among the Germanic family of languages, the family of which English is a member.

The Germanic family of languages. You have seen that it is possible to group languages according to their similarities. The similarities, as well as the differences, often fit into regular patterns, as seen in the illustration of Vulgar Latin and its modern forms, Modern French, Spanish, Italian, etc. In the case of Modern English and its "sister" languages, we do not have the good fortune to possess written records of their common parent-language. It is for situations like this that linguists have devised a system which is often called comparative reconstruction or simply the comparative method. By means of evidence found in written records and inferences based upon this evidence, linguists work backwards through time to reconstruct earlier forms of a language.

It is essential for complete understanding of the later history of languages, that the linguist obtain the earliest existing forms of the languages to be studied. As you may remember from earlier units, if two groups speaking the same language are separated geographically, they will tend to develop their own distinctive versions of that language within the space of a few generations. This tendency is seen in the varieties of English throughout the world and even in variations among the regional dialects of American English. Speakers of Old English, you will recall, isolated themselves from their cousins on the continent by migrating across the North Sea to the island of England. The linguist studying English and its related languages will need to have the oldest written records available, since the language represented in those documents is more likely to resemble the parent language than will the later modern forms. The first extensive writing in English dates back to the eighth century A.D.; the earliest records of any Germanic language date back to the fourth century A.D.

Armed with the written records of Old English and the oldest records of other European languages, the linguists of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries grouped languages according to the patterns of close resemblances among them. Even the modern forms of several European languages show the similarities that led linguists to group them into three families:

Germanic		Romance		Slavic	
'hand'		'hand'		'hand'	
English -	hand	French -	main	Russian -	ruka
Dutch -	hand	Italian -	mano	Polish -	ręka
German -	Hand	Spanish -	mano	Bohemian -	ruka
Danish -	haand			Serbian -	ruka
Swedish -	hand				
'drink'		'drink'		'drink'	
English -	drink	French -	boire	Russian -	pit
Dutch -	drinken	Italian -	bere	Polish -	pic
German -	trinken	Spanish -	beber	Bohemian -	piti
Danish -	drikke			Serbian -	piti
Swedish -	dricka				

Such close similarities as those observed in the chart above led linguists to suggest that English, Dutch, German, Danish, and Swedish (among others) had descended from a common parent-language. What they knew about the histories of the people speaking these languages reinforced this hypothesis. Working with similar evidence from other languages, these linguists divided most of the languages of modern Europe and India into approximately eight families: indo-Iranian, Hellenic, Italic, Celtic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic, Armenian, and Albanian. A brief summary of the make-up of these language families is found on page 4 of the Francis text, The History of English.

Proto-Germanic. Although linguists felt they had sufficient evidence to support the belief that English, Dutch, German, Danish, Swedish, and other languages had sprung from a common parent-language, they had no absolute proof of this hypothesis. Writing came late to Northern Europe; therefore the speakers of this parent of the Germanic languages did not leave written records. In the case of the Romance languages, the records of the parent-language, Latin, are there to examine. But in cases where older languages had not been written, other means were necessary in order to study those earlier forms. Out of this situation was born the comparative method. The linguist brought to bear upon the problem whatever evidence he could get from written records; to this he added his powers of reason.

What was the "parent" of the Germanic family of languages like? What would it have looked like if it had been recorded by means of some sort of writing system? What would it sound like? These are the kinds of questions which linguists set out to answer about the parent-language of English and other modern languages. Working with the oldest forms of a word from each of the Germanic languages, they reconstructed what is called a "proto-form," a form that is not to be found in any written record. "Proto-forms" cannot be checked by reference to actual writing, since they are simply the result of inferences based upon the evidence found in actual writing. Accordingly, these forms representing the probable forms of the words in the parent language of English are called Proto-Germanic. All such forms are marked with an asterisk (*) so as to indicate that they are hypothetical forms based upon inference. Let us look at one such "inferred" form.

The oldest written records of English give us the word *mōdor* for 'mother'. In Old Norse, the parent of Modern Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and other languages, the word for 'mother' was *mōðer.* In Old Frisian, a language whose modern descendant is spoken by people living on the north coast of Holland, the word was *mōder.* In Old Saxon, the earlier form of the Low German now spoken in northern Germany, the word was *mōdar.* And in Old High German, the earlier form of Modern High German (the Standard German taught in your school), the word for 'mother' was *muoter*. Given these different but closely similar forms, linguists symbolize the Proto-Germanic word as **mōder.* This proto-form is the "formula" out of which the different forms listed above could all have developed. The normal processes of linguistic change produced the different forms of the Proto-Germanic word **mōder*: Old English *mōdor*, Old Norse *mōðer*, Old Frisian *mōder*, Old Saxon *mōdar*, and Old High German *muoter*. Similar processes of linguistic change have produced modern forms like English *mother*, Dutch *moeder*, High German *Mutter*, Swedish *moder*, and Danish *moder*.

Linguists do not claim that the form **mōder* represents the exact way speakers of Proto-Germanic pronounced the word for 'female parent.' No one can be absolutely sure about such things. But these proto-forms are a necessary device for the historical linguist who tries to push the study of a language back to a time before it was written. In brief, the proto-forms are the sum of all the inferences that can be made about earlier forms of words. The inferences are firmly based, however, upon existing forms found in written records.

The preceding discussion may have given you the idea that all speakers of the parent language, Proto-Germanic, spoke in exactly the same way. By setting forth a single Proto-Germanic form (for example **mōder*), the linguist does not mean to suggest that dialect differences did not exist within the community of people who spoke this language. On the contrary, the linguist knows that all natural languages are made up of dialects--that is, different varieties of a single language. He expects that these dialects will differ not only in matters of vocabulary but also in grammar and pronunciation. In the case of Proto-Germanic, it is very likely that several dialects existed within that language. Furthermore, these dialect differences, along with subsequent changes in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, account for the several different forms that are found in Old English, Old Saxon, Old Frisian, Old Norse, Old High German, and other descendants of Proto-Germanic.

The actual events leading to the development of several different Germanic languages will never be known. But it may have happened something like this: At one point in history--probably around the first century A. D.--a group of people living together in Western Europe spoke a group of very similar dialects. We have chosen to call this group of dialects *Proto-Germanic.* The tribes speaking this language probably lived in close contact with each other, but each tribe spoke a slightly different variety of the common language. In the first century A. D. these tribes came into contact with the Roman armies which then occupied much of Western Europe. During the next three or four centuries (roughly the period during which Roman armies ruled the island of England), these tribes migrated into various parts of Northern Europe. The separation from other Germanic tribes led to further dialect differences. The changes taking place in each of the Germanic dialects would not likely be identical, so the differences among them would tend to become greater. A large group of these Germanic-speaking tribes migrated to England during the fifth and sixth centuries, taking over most of the island from the Celtic inhabitants. It is the group of dialects spoken by these tribesmen that we now refer to as Old English. Other Germanic-speaking tribes settled in various parts of Northern Europe. The dialects spoken by these tribes are what we now call Old Norse, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, Old High German, etc. In time, these dialects became so different that speakers of one dialect could not understand those who spoke another. The modern descendants of these Germanic languages are, of course, Modern English, Dutch, German, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, etc. See the chart on page 7 of the Francis text for the probable relationships among these modern languages.

Below are some illustrations of Proto-Germanic forms which have been reconstructed by linguists from the evidence found in written records. Each Proto-Germanic form is marked with an asterisk to indicate that it is a hypothetical form.

Modern English	Old English	Proto-Germanic
father	fæ̱der	*fa̱der (or faðe̱r)
house	hūs	*hūs
water	wæter	*water (or watō)
acre	æcer	*akraz
day	dæg	*dagaz
fare	fa̱ran	*faranan
ride	rīdan	*ridanan
horn	horn	*hornan
guest	gæst or gest	*gastiz

Your unabridged dictionary will tell you what the related forms in the other Germanic languages are. For instance, the related (or cognate) forms of the Old English word fæder are as follows: Gothic fadar, Old Norse faðer or faðir, Old Frisian feder, Old Saxon fader, and Old High German fater.

Proto-Indo-European. The "family" concept of languages has led us to the hypothesis that certain modern languages (English, German, Swedish, etc.) are closely related to one another. They make up what linguists call the Germanic family of languages. Furthermore, linguists have claimed that the older forms of these modern languages, (Old English, Old High German, Old Norse, etc.) have descended from a common parent-language, Proto-Germanic, which was never written. Working backwards in time by means of inferences based upon written records, the linguist has provided us with what are usually called "proto-forms." These proto-forms represent highly educated guesses as to what certain words were like in the parent language. Thus from the evidence of Old English *fæder,* Old Norse *faðer* or *faðir,* Old Frisian *feder,* Old Saxon *fader,* and Old High German *fater,* the linguist proposes the proto-form **fader.* This proto-form is not meant to be interpreted as the exact way that speakers of Proto-Germanic said the word for 'male parent.' Since we have no written records of Proto-Germanic, we can never be absolutely certain about such matters.

The historical linguist does not stop with the reconstruction of the parent language of modern Germanic languages. By means of the same comparative method described above, he probes even further into the history of human language. From earliest times, educated men have wondered about the many similarities that exist among the languages of the world. Literature is full of explanations of how modern languages came to be what they are. For example, many early writers usually derived all other languages from Hebrew. French was often looked upon as a sort of "haphazard corruption" of Latin. Students of language in modern times have put forth more reasonable and scientific explanations.

It was clear to the linguists of the eighteenth century that there were several language families like the Germanic, Romance, and Slavic groups. But what they could not explain was that there were wider resemblances that cut across family boundaries and included languages such as Greek. How could they explain similarities like the following: English *mother,* Russian *mat,* Latin *māter,* and Greek *mēter;* English *three,* German *drei,* Russian *tri,* Latin *trēs,* and Greek *treis.* Evidence from an ancient language of India provided the impetus for investigations into such "unexplainable" resemblances. This ancient language was *Sanskrit.* The similarities between Sanskrit and the languages of Europe were too great to be explained on the basis of borrowing or simply accident. For instance, the Sanskrit word for 'mother' was *matr* and for 'three' it was *tri.* The obvious explanation was, of course, that these languages of Europe and India formed another, more inclusive, family. Thus Germanic, Romance, and Slavic language families were related to Greek, to Sanskrit, and to many other languages. "To be related" has a very special meaning when used to talk about languages and language families. What does it mean when we say that Old English, Old Norse, and Old High German are related? Earlier in this unit you were told that "related" languages are those that have descended from a common parent-language. In the case of Old English, Old Norse, and Old High German, the common parent is called Proto-Germanic. The similarities found among languages like Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, English, Russian, and many others demanded a similar explanation. The explanation is, of course, that these languages are later forms of an earlier parent-language that no longer exists. Since most of these related (or cognate) languages were found in Europe and India, the name given to this hypothetical parent-language is *Proto-Indo-European.* The prefix "proto" simply means that it is a hypothetical language for which no written records exist.

Let us examine a few more words which reveal the resemblances among the languages of Europe and India. For the English word *mother* we find the following older forms: Proto-Germanic **mōder,* Sanskrit *matr,* Greek *metēr,* Latin *māter,* Old Irish *māthir,* and Old Bulgarian *mati.* The Proto-Indo-European word is symbolized as **mātēr*, with both vowel sounds "long," as indicated by the mark (-) over them. Our English word *brother* has the following cognates: Greek *phratēr*, Latin *frater*, Sanskrit *bhrātā,* Old Norse *brōthir*, Gothic *brothar,* Old High German *bruoder,* and Old Church Slavic *bratu.* On the evidence of such forms as these, the Proto-Indo-European word is given as **bhrater.* For the word *three,* we find Sanskrit *tri,* Persian *thri,* Greek *treis,* Latin *tres,* Celtic *tri,* and Gothic *thri.* The Proto-Indo-European word is symbolized as **treies.*

Patterns of sound change. Perhaps you have been wondering exactly how linguists arrive at the earlier proto-forms. You were told earlier in this unit that they did this by making inferences based upon actual written forms. But what kind of inferences are these? What principles guide the linguist in deciding what sounds probably were present in the parent language? The comparative method rests in part upon the fact that sound changes (that is, changes in pronunciation) occur in very regular patterns, not haphazardly. Years of patient research have produced a large body of information about how sounds change in natural languages. Given this knowledge about sound change, the linguist digs back into the history of a word by means of a process much like triangulation. Triangulation, of course, is a method for locating an exact spot by working from two fixed points a known distance apart. In more general terms, triangulation is a process of making a calculation or prediction based upon known facts. Thus the linguist works from known facts (existing forms of words and established patterns of sound change) to hypothetical forms of words such as those listed above for Proto-Germanic and Proto-Indo-European. His predictions are, at best, highly educated guesses. But sometimes his inferences can be checked against existing written records, as is the case with the Romance languages, the descendants of Latin. Historical linguists are convinced of the validity of their methods.

The best way to find out what is meant by the phrase "patterns of sound change" is to examine lists of cognate words. Cognate words, you will remember, are words that have descended from a common ancestor. For example, the various forms of the word *mother*--Sanskrit *matr*, Greek *metēr*, Old Irish *māthir*, etc.--are all cognate words. All of these have descended from a hypothetical form **mātēr.* When you examine long lists of these cognate forms, you begin to notice certain regular patterns that are consistent throughout each of the languages being studied. One such pattern is the regular contrast between certain sounds in Germanic languages and those found in Latin. Many words beginning with a /p/ sound in Latin have an /f/ sound in the Germanic word for the same thing:

Latin--*p*ater, *p*es, *p*iscis, *p*lenus
English--*f*ather, *f*oot, *f*ish, *f*ull

From these and other examples from related languages, linguists infer that in the parent Indo-European language the sound was probably */p/. Furthermore, they suggest that one of the sound changes that occurred as the Germanic tribes broke away from the Indo-European community was the change from */p/ to */f/ in words like those listed above. In other words, as Proto-Indo-European became Proto-Germanic in the mouths of the Germanic tribesmen, one of the changes in pronunciation that occurred was that words formerly having a /p/ sound now had an /f/.

Words beginning with a /t/ in Latin regularly have a /θ/ sound in some Germanic languages:

Latin--tres, tenuis, triginta, tongēre, terere
English--three, thin, thirty, think, throw

From contrasts such as these, as well as much other evidence, linguists suggest that the sound in Proto-Indo-European was */t/. Similarly, words beginning with a /k/ sound in Latin (spelled with a c) regularly have an /h/ sound in Germanic languages:

Latin--cornu, centum, caput
English--horn, hund (red), head

The hypothetical Proto-Indo-European sound is symbolized as a */k/. Linguists infer from these and other examples that two other sound changes that set off Proto-Germanic from the parent language were the change from */t/ to */θ/ and the change from */k/ to */h/.

The following chart lists the major sound changes that set off Proto-Germanic from the other Indo-European languages:

*Proto-Indo-European		*Proto-Germanic
p	corresponds to	f
t	" "	θ
k	" "	h
b	" "	p
d	" "	t
g	" "	k
bh	" "	b
dh	" "	d
gh	" "	g

The evidence upon which these patterns are based is too complex to be taken up in detail here. The patterns of sound change are intended only as illustrations of sound changes that distinguish Germanic languages from other branches of the Indo-European family.

There is one sound change, however, that deserves special comment, since it points up the fact that other sound changes have occurred within the Germanic family since it separated from the parent language.

The change from Proto-Indo-European */d/ to Proto-Germanic */t/ is followed by another change which separates Old High German from other Germanic languages such as English or Dutch. Words beginning with a /d/ in Latin correspond to those with a /t/ in English:

Latin--dens, duo, decem, demo, digitum, domare
English--tooth, two, ten, take, toe, tame

The Proto-Indo-European sound is symbolized as */d/. The Proto-Germanic sound */t/ has undergone further change as the Germanic tribes became separated from one another. About the same time that some Germanic tribes were settling in England, another sound change was beginning to take place in the language of those Germanic tribes living in what is today the highlands of southern and eastern Germany. It is this High German sound shift that produced many of the differences between Modern English and Modern High German.

English: tooth, two, twilight, twitter, time, water, foot
German: Zahn, Zwei, Zweilicht, zwitschern, Zeit, Wasser, Fusz

Other Germanic languages show the same differences:

English--tooth, time, ten, water, foot
Dutch--tand, tijd, tien, water, voet
German--Zahn, Zeit, Zehn, Wasser, Fusz

Evidence from other languages shows that the High German /tz/ in words like Zahn (tooth) is less primitive than the /t/ found in Modern English and Dutch. For instance, Gothic (from the fourth century A. D.) had the form tunthus, and Old Norse had the form tönn (Modern Swedish tand). In other words, the fact that other branches of the Germanic family of languages have the sound /t/ in both the old and modern forms of words like tooth, time, etc., indicates that the /tz/ of High German Zahn and Zeit is a later change which set this language off from other members of the Germanic family.

Conclusions. The sound changes you have been studying were discussed to make one point quite clear: sound change occurs in regular patterns, not haphazardly. The regularity of these sound changes enables the student of language to look deeply into the history of languages for which there are no written records. From existing evidence in written records, the linguist draws inferences about earlier forms of a language. He calls this process comparative reconstruction or the comparative method. It is based upon the assumption that languages develop through a process of dialect differentiation. This term implies the concept of language "families" or "related" languages. When the linguist says that two or more languages are "related" or belong to the same language "family," he means that they have descended from a common parent-language. The normal processes of linguistic change first produce different dialects, and these dialects eventually become different languages.

Discussion Questions.

1. After reading the unit entitled "The Comparative Method," how would you now answer the question: Which of the modern languages are most closely related to English? The chart on page 7 of the Francis text may help you discuss this question.

2. What are the most common explanations of the similarity which exists among vocabulary items of many modern languages? For instance, both English and French have a word spelled *association*. Of course the word is pronounced differently in each language. But how do you explain the duplication in form? On the other hand, how do you explain the apparent similarity between French *mère* and English *mother*? Use your dictionary to support your explanations.

3. Do you have any idea how many natural languages there are presently in the world? Estimates run as high as three thousand or more. How many of these modern languages belong to the Germanic family? How many belong to the Indo-European family? What languages do you know of that do not belong to the Indo-European group?

4. What is a "proto-form"? For example, the Proto-Germanic form for the word *king* is **kuningaz*. What does this "proto-form" stand for? What does the asterisk indicate?

5. You were told in the present unit that "linguists study earlier forms of languages by means of a comparative method." The comparative method, it was explained, involves the use of *inference*. What is an inference? Give an example of the type of inference linguists have made about earlier forms of languages.

6. What does it mean for two or more languages "to be related"? What are the implications of the phrase "to be related"?

7. How does your dictionary indicate which words are related to the word you happen to be investigating? The part of the dictionary entry which deals with such relationships is called the etymology, and it is often enclosed within brackets [ ]. For instance, the etymology for the word *acre* is given as follows in *Websters Third International Dictionary*: [ME, fr. OE *æcer*; akin to OHG *ackar* field, ON *akr* arable land, Goth *akrs* field, L *ager*, Gk *agros*, Skt *ajra*, L *agere* to drive--more at AGENT] What was the form of the word in Middle English? Is *acre* a native or a borrowed word?

8. The phrase "akin to" used in the etymology above identifies *cognate* (or related) words. Explain what the term *cognate* means in terms of the information given in the etymology for the word *acre*.

Exercise 5.

Part A: From a field of knowledge which interests you, select one native and one borrowed word, and for each write a brief summary of the information in its etymology. If you are not familiar with the abbreviations used in your dictionary, read the explanatory notes usually found in the introduction.

Part B: Construct a chart in which you show the family relationships among the various languages taught at your school. An illustration of this kind of chart is found on page 7 of the Francis text.

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OREGON CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

History of English, Parts 3 and 4
Old English to Early Modern

Language Curriculum V and VI
Teacher Version

TE000 220

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History of English: Part III

I. Introduction

This unit has been designed for use in the twelfth grade, but the section on "The External History" could be taught in grade eleven. This part includes a very brief review of some of the important concepts taught in previous language units and a series of discussion questions and several exercises covering the "external" history of English. The unit continues with a presentation of the "internal" history of English--spelling, sounds, grammar, and vocabulary--and a brief look at the technique used in the study of earlier forms of language. The sections have been bound together so as to make it easier for you to look ahead or to review. Also, it would be advisable for you to have available several units from Language Curriculum I, II, and III: "Varieties of English," "Sounds of English," "Writing Systems," and "History of English: Parts I and II."

Teaching Methods.

"History of English, Part III" is intended to be used concurrently with two additional texts: History of English by W. Nelson Francis and A Brief History of the English Language by Albert H. Marckwardt. In general, the readings in these texts should precede the work in the units themselves.

In order to arouse student interest in the subject of language change, you may wish to use a recording such as "Our Changing Language," by Evelyn Gott and Raven I. McDavid, Jr. (McGraw-Hill, 1965). The readings from Old, Middle, and Early Modern English are excellent, and the material dealing with dialects and Shakespeare's English also serves as a review of earlier units. Following the recording and any subsequent discussion which it arouses, you might have your students begin work with a reading of pages 1-20 of the Francis text.

The first classroom discussions should focus upon a review of basic concepts such as (1) dialectal variations within a language, (2) the relationship of writing to the sounds of speech, and (3) the gradual processes of language change as seen in the various subsystems of a language. At this point you may find it helpful to use earlier language units as a source of illustrations, examples, definitions, etc. If full sets of these other units are not available, you might use an opaque projector to project pertinent pages of these units onto a screen or the classroom wall. Another way, of course, would be to copy such examples as you need and reproduce them on ditto paper or simply write them on the blackboard. The amount of review and discussion will depend, naturally, upon the previous experience of the students. If they have carefully studied each of the previous language units, little in the way of review will be necessary. However, if they have not studied the previous units well (or at all), you will have to present as much material as you feel necessary in order to prepare your students for the job ahead.

The "external" history of English should be taught much in the way any other history unit would be handled. There will certainly need to be some classroom reading assignments followed by a good deal of discussion of the historical events and the effects these events have had upon the lives of English-speaking peoples. You should feel free to omit those discussion questions that you find unsatisfactory, and you should also feel free to add other questions that you consider relevant. The exercises have been included in the hope that the students will want an opportunity to apply the knowledge they may have acquired.

Beginning with "The Internal History" the study of language becomes much more complex as we try to show how English has changed internally over the past twelve hundred years. Again, if the student has studied carefully the units dealing with the language of Shakespeare, he should have little trouble with the "internal" history of English. Some sections--notably the ones dealing with Old and Middle English sounds and grammar--may be too difficult for the average and below average pupils. If you find this to be the case, feel free to cut short the study of these sections and move on to the study of vocabulary, a subject presented here in a manner that should cause no difficulty even for the poorer students.

One way to approach the study of internal history would be to have the students first read pages 20-40 of the Francis text and follow this with classroom reading and discussion of the first two sections of the "internal" history--the spelling and the sounds. The student version has little more than some data and a series of questions relating to Old and Middle English grammar. Try to get the students to arrive at generalizations about the inflections and auxiliary forms discussed in the teacher version. Then the students should read pages 7-19 of the Marckwardt text, which emphasizes the development of the English vocabulary. Following this reading assignment, the students should read and discuss the fourth section of the "internal" history, the vocabulary of Old and Middle English. Again, the discussion questions and exercises have been included so that you may use them if you wish. You may have your own questions and exercises that better suit your students and your own classroom situation.

The last section, the comparative method, is the culmination of the students' study of the history of the English language. In this unit the student examines the methods used by historical linguists in their study of earlier forms of language. The unit does not stress the "answers" to problems of language history so much as it stresses the ways of finding these "answers." Since this part of the unit involves such things as the use of inference, the derivation of hypothetical forms, and other highly abstract matters, the below-average student may not be able to handle the material that is presented. Most students, however, should find it exciting to see for themselves how linguists determine what the ancestors of our language might have been like.

Background Information for the Teacher

The student version and the Francis and Marckwardt texts contain most of the illustrations and data that you will need in teaching this history unit. Two sections, the review of language concepts and the grammar of Old and Middle English, are arranged so that the student version contains primarily data and questions. The teacher version contains a rather full discussion of the concepts to be taught in these two areas. Where the discussion of the concepts being taught is found primarily in the student version, the teacher version contains references for those teachers who want additional information.

Review of Basic Concepts

You should make certain that your students understand the following basic principles:

Relationship between speech and writing. Our own system of alphabetic writing has been defined as "a visual representation of speech."[1] This definition implies that our writing system is a substitute for speech itself, a set of visible symbols which stand for the sounds we make with our speech organs. Thus each meaningful speech sound is represented by a symbol (letters like *a*, *b*, *c*). When we receive messages by means of speech, we are responding to the language signals of our native language. These language signals reach our brain by means of sound vibrations that come through our ears. When we receive messages by way of "writing," we are responding to the same language signals, but these signals reach our brain by means of light waves that come through our eyes.

The alphabet used in writing English, then, is simply a set of visible marks which stand for the meaningful sounds of our language. But there are only twenty-six letters to stand for approximately forty distinctive sounds. To complicate matters further, our present-day spelling is often out of tune with the pronunciation of Modern English. One of the causes for this lack of "fit" between our writing system and the sounds of our language is that many English sounds (especially the vowels) have changed in the last 500 years, but the ways we spell have changed very little in that time. Thus we have the same letters standing for different sounds (cough, through, plough, dough) and the same sounds being represented by different letters (real--feel, sit--cite, cat--kit). However, there are in English many patterns of letters which are very regular in their representation of sounds: cut--cute, hat--hate, rat--rate, bit--bite, mop--mope. In fact, our writing system is not nearly as irregular as it might appear to one who is first learning to write English.

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[1] See *Writing Systems*, Language Curriculum II.

Varieties of English. The first language unit, "Varieties of English," was intended to make one point clear: Modern English, as it is spoken in various parts of the world, varies according to the geographic location of the speaker, his social position within his own community, and the situation in which he speaks.[2] The kinds of English spoken in Great Britain, Australia, and the United States differ widely, and within each of these countries there are many regional variations in speech. It is also clear that within the speech habits of any single region there are sub-varieties that have come about primarily because of the existence of social classes. And, finally, within the speech habits of any speaker of English there are different styles appropriate to various social situations.

In order to talk about the several varieties of English, we found that we needed a new term. We had to distinguish between different varities of the same language and truly different languages. The term which serves this purpose is, of course, dialect--a word used to stand for a variety of a language that differs from other varieties of the same language in matters of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. When a large part of a speech community[3] cannot understand the speech of another group, it is usually assumed that these two groups speak different languages. But the distinction between languages and between dialects of the same language is not always an easy one to make. Sometimes political divisions (national boundaries) make the distinction for us. Some European nations (notably in Scandinavia and the Low Countries) speak what could be called dialects of the same language, but political divisions give these dialects the status of separate languages. The Dutch spoken in the Netherlands is understood by the Belgians living to the south of them, and the Flemish spoken by the Belgians is understood by the Netherlanders. On the other hand, many dialects spoken in China are mutually unintelligible, but usually they are all called Chinese.

Regional dialects. Nearly everyone is aware of the fact that the English spoken in a place like New York is different from that spoken in the Midwest or Southwest. However, some of us unthinkingly assume that the people from other regions have "funny accents" and that our own particular dialect is the "right" one. This attitude might possibly arise from the false assumption that there is only one "standard" or "best" dialect in the United States as there is in England or in France. In the United States there are several "standard" dialects; no one city or region has such prestige that speakers from all other regions look to it as the "best." In other words, the term "Standard Spoken English" is used to talk about several different kinds of English that are spoken by the prestige groups in various parts of English-speaking countries.

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[2] See Varieties of English, Language Curriculum I.

[3] A speech community can be defined as any group of people who are in frequent communication with each other and who, consequently, share certain speech habits.

The reasons for the existence of these regional dialects lie in the past experience of the members of each speech community. A few factors which produce dialect differences are (1) the speech habits of the earliest settlers in a region, (2) the speech habits of later settlers, (3) geographic features which tend to isolate the region or connect it with others, and (4) the presence of a nearby cultural center and its prestige dialect. The different dialects arise, then, from the fact that the speech of the first settlers in a region often differed from that of other settlements, and during the growth of that settlement the speech habits have changed in ways not necessarily the same as for adjoining communities. Thus the dialect of Eastern Massachusetts differs from that of Eastern Virginia, even though the history of the two areas is superficially similar. The differences in these two dialects are found not only in vocabulary (johnny cake vs. batter bread) but also in pronunciation (greasy, pronounced with an /s/ or with a /z/) and grammar (you vs. you-all, or dove vs. dived).

Social dialects. The term dialect can also be used to identify those differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar that are found within any speech community, for example, within a large metropolitan city like Boston. Within the city and its suburbs, you will find one variety of English used by the educated and powerful members of the prestige group, and you find other varieties, differing in many ways from the "standard dialect," used by members of other social groups. These varieties of speech are commonly called social dialects. In many communities there are at least three identifiable social dialects: (1) the speech of the highly-educated or cultivated members of the community, (2) the speech of the moderately-educated members (those with at least a high school education), and (3) the speech of the poorly-educated members of the community. Dictionaries usually label those words and pronunciations that are not preferred by the prestige or educated group as non-standard or sub-standard. A few words that are labeled in this way are hisself, brung, clumb, and ain't.

Functional varieties of speech and writing. Even after distinguishing between regional and social dialects of English, we have still not accounted for all the variations that are easily discovered within American English. In the very same ways that regional and social dialects differ (that is, in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary), the speech and writing of any one person or group of people differs noticeably according to the demands of the social situation it occurs in. In fact, linguists have been able to identify a broad range of styles within both spoken and written English.[4] These different styles (not called dialects) are often arranged on a scale indicating the varying degrees of formality and informality. The best way to prove to your students that these styles do exist is to have them compare the language of two pieces of writing intended for widely different audiences and purposes. The language of a formal essay is not the same as that of an informal note to a friend, nor is the language of informal conversation identical with that of a televised address to the nation.

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[4] See Varieties of English, Language Curriculum I.

Language change. The study of dialectal variation in a language has an important application in the study of language history. If your students do not understand that any language has been, is now, and always will be made up of several dialects, then they may fail to understand how Old English developed from what was simply one of the various dialects of an older parent-language. In other words, if they understand first of all what dialects are, they may more easily learn how new languages develop from them and how languages are related to each other.

In previous years, your students may have learned something about the language of Shakespeare, which was the language of London in approximately 1600. If so, they probably discovered how little English has really changed in the past four centuries.[5] But there are several points about language change which they should remember: (1) even though languages change very slowly, they do change constantly, (2) older stages of a language are not "purer" or "better" than later stages, and (3) all parts of a language undergo change in the passage of time--not just the vocabulary, but the sounds and grammar as well. The changes in English since 1600 were not "corruptions" or "degenerations" of earlier forms but natural developments within a system used by living human beings. As the people of each generation use a language, they consciously or unconsciously shape it to their own needs and then transmit the changed system to the succeeding generations.

The child's work in learning a language is very much like the linguist's work in trying to write a grammar of that language. Both must construct a grammar of the language from the limited number of sentences with which they come into contact. Of course, the child is not aware of the fact that he is constructing a grammar; whereas the linguist constructs consciously. Since the samplings of sentences are never exactly the same, the sets of internalized rules that make up individual grammars also will vary. The child constructs his set of internal rules on the basis of the data he hears. Thus changes in language that are made by adult speakers are built into the grammars of the children who learn their language from those adults. The child then transmits these rules (by example) to others who are learning the language. Over the span of several generations, the changes in a language become quite obvious, as your students discovered when they read Shakespeare for the first time.

II. External History

The Francis text probably contains all the information that you need for this section of the unit. However, in the event that you want additional material, the following book deals with the external history in great detail:

Albert C. Baugh, A History of the English Language,
Second Edition (New York, 1957).

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[5] See History of English, Language Curriculum III and IV.

The discussion questions are of such a general nature that we have not provided answers for them. The questions usually refer to information found in the Francis text. The pronunciations asked for on page 2 of the student version are as follows:

soldier - /soldyər/, *nature* - /nætyər/,

issue - /isyǖ/, *body* - /bodī̈/, *father* - /fæðər/,

blood - /blūd/, and clean - /klēn/.

See the second section of "The External History" for other examples.

III. The Internal History

A. The spelling of Old and Middle English.

Most of the material in the student version is self-explanatory. However, if you want additional information on the English writing system, the following books are excellent sources:

Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York, 1933), Chapter 17, "Written Records."

Charles C. Fries, *Linguistics and Reading* (New York, 1962), Chapter 6, "English Spelling: Background and Present Patterns."

Samual Moore, *Historical Outlines of English Sounds and Inflections*, Revised by Albert H. Marckwardt (Ann Arbor, 1964).

W. Nelson Francis, *The Structure of American English* (New York, 1958), Chapter 8, "Writing It Down: Graphics."

B. The sounds of Old and Middle English.

Again, the material in the student version is self-explanatory, but the teacher who wants additional information will find the following books very useful:

Samuel Moore, *Historical Outlines of English Sounds and Inflections* (Noted above).

Stuart Robertson, *The Development of Modern English*, Revised by Frederic G. Cassidy (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1954), Chapter 5, "The History of English Sounds."

C. The grammar of Old and Middle English.

Before looking at the grammar of Old and Middle English, your students may want to review briefly the ways in which English grammar changed in the period from 1600 to the present day. Two previous units in our course of study have dealt with Early Modern English, the language of Shakespeare. If these units are not available to you, a very brief review here may provide the necessary background.

The grammar of sixteenth and seventeenth century English is very much like that of Modern English. Shakespeare constructed sentences using very nearly the same set of rules that you use today. Perhaps the most obvious differences are the forms of certain pronouns (thou, thee, thy, etc.) and verbs (blesseth, riseth, namest, know'st, etc.). A more important difference was the way Shakespeare could invert the main verb--besides the verbs *be* and *have*--to form yes/no questions: "Mark you but that?" or "Call *you*?" The placement of negatives also differed: "I know you *not*," or "You look *not* well." In the auxiliary part of the verb phrase there were several differences. Shakespeare often used *be* + *en* where we would now use *have* + *en*, as in the expression, "The wind *is come* about." He did not have to use *be* + *ing* to indicate an ongoing action: "He *comes*, my lord" rather than "He *is coming*, my lord." Other items of grammar which were different include such things as the use of relative pronouns (*who*, *that*, *which*), the word order in requests and commands ("Look you here!"), the method of comparing some adjectives ("most boldest"), and the use of the word *do* as an optional part of the auxiliary.

The changes in English grammar during the past 400 years have been few and, for the most part, involve surface structure (for example, the forms of words) not deep structure (for example, the order of words in kernel sentences). The basic order of sentence elements in Shakespeare's English and in the English of today is $\underset{1}{\underline{\text{Subject}}} + \underset{2}{\underline{\text{Auxiliary}}} + \underset{3}{\underline{\text{Verb}}} + \underset{4}{\underline{\text{Object}}}$. In this unit, however, your students will be examining English sentences that may seem as different from ours as those of a foreign language. The grammar of Old English is quite different from that of Modern English. Because of the extent of the changes involved, they will study only a few of the most obvious differences that exist among the grammars of Old, Middle, Early Modern, and Modern English.

To begin with, they will study how the language loses many inflectional forms of words as Old English develops into Middle English and as Middle English enters the modern period. Secondly, since the auxiliary is one part of our grammar of Modern English that we know how to describe rather completely, they will examine some of the changes that have taken place in the English auxiliary in the past 1200 years.

Inflectional forms of Modern English. If your students have studied a language like German or Latin, they will be quite familiar with inflections. Both German and Latin are highly *inflected* languages. Generally speaking, *inflection* is a process of varying the basic form of a word to show various functions. The basic form of a word can be varied by means of prefixes and suffixes or by means of internal changes. In English, for instance, the noun in any NP must indicate number, either singular (one) or plural (more than one). The root form of the word boy adds an s when it has plural number: boy + plural ⟹ boys. The addition of the plural s adds a /z/ sound to the pronunciation of the word: /boy/ + plural ⟹ /boyz/. Similarly, the plural form of the noun fence is written fences. But the addition of the s to the written form of the word does not show what is added to the pronunciation. The sounds /əz/ are added to the root form: /fens/ + plural ⟹ /fensəz/. The addition of the plural to a noun like book adds an /s/ sound to the basic form: /buk/ + plural ⟹ /buks/. Still another thing happens when we add the plural to a noun like foot: foot /fut/ + plural ⟹ feet /fīt/. The change occurs within the word; the vowel /u/ is replaced by /ī/. The addition of the plural form to English nouns is an example of inflection. In other words, English nouns are inflected (or change their form) to indicate number.

Modern English has very few surviving inflectional forms compared to more conservative languages like Latin or German. We have given examples of inflections consisting of suffixes (boys) and of interal changes (feet), but Modern English has no prefix that functions as an inflectional form. In Old English, however, the prefix ge- was attached to verbs when they occurred with certain auxiliaries, as in gebrohte (brought) or gelufod (loved). The following chart summarizes the inflectional suffixes that are still alive in Modern English.

Inflection	Pronunciation	Function
(e)s	/s, z, əz/	Used to indicate plural of nouns and the 3rd person singular form of verbs.
(e)d	/d, t, əd/	Used to indicate past tense and the en form of most verbs.
(e)n	/n, ən/	Used to indicate the past participle (or en) form of some verbs.
ing	/iŋ/	Used to indicate the present participle (or ing) form of verbs.
's	/s, z, əz/	Used to indicate the genitive forms of nouns (possession, ownership, etc.).
(e)r	/ər/	Used for comparison of some adjectives (two things compared).
(e)st	/əst/	Used for comparison of some adjectives (more than two things compared).

Old English inflections. Ask the students to look again at the example of Old English on page 26 of the Francis text. Tell them to examine the endings of the words in this selection. Many of them have identical endings: wordum, dagum, ærendwrecum, and furðum; kyningas and ðiowotdomas; or folces, innanbordes, and utanbordes. Ask them to find what other endings appear most frequently. These, of course, are inflections. The English of King Alfred's time had many more of these inflections than Modern English does. Grammatical distinctions such as the function of a word or the class to which a word belonged were indicated in the surface structures of Old English primarily by the device of varying the form of the word. Most of these inflections have been lost during the nearly eleven hundred years since Alfred's time.

In Old English the form of the word usually revealed how the word functioned in a particular sentence. For example, noun forms like batum, scipum, and hornum could be only indirect objects of verbs. If these same words were functioning as subjects or direct objects, their forms would be changed to bātas, scipu, and horn. The Modern English forms of these words can function either as subjects or objects without change of form. The Old English forms oxa (ox), glōf (glove), and heorte (heart) were used only as subjects. When these same words functioned as indirect objects of verbs, they became oxan, glōfe, and heortan.

Have your students examine this set of Old English sentences to see how the system of inflections operated.

(1) sē lufsum guma lufað þa glade hlǣfdigan
(The amiable man loves the cheerful lady.)

(2) þa lufsume guman lufiað þa gladu hlǣfdigan
(The amiable men love the cheerful ladies.)

(3) sēo lufsumu hlǣfdige lufað þone glædne guman
(The amiable lady loves the cheerful man.)

(4) þā lufsume hlǣfdigan lufiað þā glade guman
(The amiable ladies love the cheerful men.)

Notice that the definite article (Modern English the) has a different form in Old English for each of the subject NP's: sē (indicating singular and masculine subject man), þa (indicating plural and masculine subject men), sēo (indicating singular and feminine subject lady), and þā (indicating plural and feminine subject ladies). Ask the students to specify how the definite article in the object NP's changes. Also call their attention to the fact that both the adjective (amiable) and the nouns (man-men, lady-ladies) have inflectional markers. These particular markers show that the nouns and adjectives belong to the same subject NP as the article: (1) se lufsum guma, (2) þa lufsume guman, (3) sēo lufsumu hlæfdige, and (4) þā lufsume hlǣfdigan. The object NP's show this same kind of agreement within the phrase. That is, the adjective and the nouns also have inflections which agree with the article. Ask the students to see whether any two of the eight subject and object NP's have identical articles and inflectional markers. In sentence (4) notice that the article (þā) differs from the article (þa) found in three other NP's in only one feature: the mark over the vowel which indicates its length (that is, the time it takes to say it).

Modern English does not have such an elaborate system of agreement within the noun phrase. The distinction between subject and object functions is still reflected in certain pronoun forms (I - me, he - him, they - them, etc.), but even here the system has fewer distinctions than Old English had. Where we now use him for both direct and indirect object, Old English had hine for the direct object and him for the indirect object.

The following lists could be used to give the students an idea of the large number of inflections used in Old English:

Nouns
(stone) stān, stānes, stāne, stānas, stāna, stānum
(ship) scip, scipes, scipe, scipu, scipa, scipum
(foot) fōt, fōtes, fēt, fōta, fōtum

Pronouns
(I) ic, (mine) mīn, (me) mē, (we two) wīt, (our two) uncer,
(us two) unc, (we) wē, (our) ūre, (us) ūs, (thou) ðū, (thine) ðīn,
(thee) ðē, (this) ðis, ðisses, ðissum, ðȳs

Adjectives
(wise) wīs, wīses, wīsum, wīsne, wīse, wīsra, wīsa,
wīsan, wīsena
(suitable or good) til, tiles, tilum, tilne, tile, tilra,
tilre, tila, tilu

Verbs
(to be) ēom, eart, is sindon, sie, sīen, wes, wesað, wesan,
wesende, wæs, wǣre, wǣron, wǣren; bēo, bist, bið,
bēoð, bēon, tō bēonne, bēonde
(drive) drife, drifest, drifeð, drifað, drīfen, drīf, tō drīfenne,
drīfende, drāf, drifon

Perhaps the word in Modern English with the largest variety of inflectional forms is the verb be: be, being, been, is, was, are, were, and am. Ask the students to compare these eight forms with the twenty-one listed above for the Old English verb be.

Middle English Inflections. The variations in the forms of Old English words (especially the nouns and adjectives) probably seem very strange to a speaker of Modern English. Your students may already have been wondering when and how English lost these inflectional forms. As a partial answer, have them examine for themselves the examples of Middle and Early Modern English in the Francis text. The dates of these selections (1200 and 1484) will help them amswer the "when" part of the question. The "how" may never be completely answered. For many reasons, most of which are unknown, the elaborate system of inflections that they examined in Old English is very much reduced during the period which has been called Middle English (1150-1450).

Ask the students to look carefully at the example of Middle English again (page 30). Have them identify the most frequently occurring endings on the words in this selection. The most obvious seem to be *eð*, *en*, *es*, and *e*. In brief, these are the changes that occurred as Old English developed into Middle English:

(1) the inflections ending in *m* changed to *n*,

(2) the vowel sounds in most inflections were levelled to a uniform /ə/, usually spelled with an *e*, and

(3) the consonant sound following the /ə/ was not pronounced, leaving the final *e* as the most common ending.

Ask them to notice the large number of words ending in *e* in the quotation from Caxton on page 34 of the Francis text. By the time of the Modern English period (1450-Present), even the final *e* was not pronounced. Writers and printers continued to spell the *e*, however, and Modern English has thousands of words which contain the "silent *e*." In reality, though the *e* is silent, it is not without function. It often signals something very definite about the vowel or consonant sound that precedes it: *cut*-*cute*, *sit*-*site*, *cop*-*cope*; *bath*-*bathe*, *breath*-*breathe*. Notice in the last two pairs that the sound represented by *th* changes from /θ/ to /ð/ while the vowel sound changes, too.

Another interesting inflectional form in Middle English is the prefix *y*, also spelled *i*. When the auxiliary *have* + *en* or *be* + *en* preceded a certain class of verbs, part of the change which the root form of the verb underwent was the addition of the prefix *y*. The following sentences from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* illustrate this verb form:

(1) ". . . So *was* the blood *y-ronnen* in his face.
Anon he *was* *y-born* out of the place. . ." (Knight's Tale-2693-4)

(2) "And thus with alle blisse and melodye
Hath Palamon *y-wedded* Emelye." (Knight's Tale-3097-8)

This prefix is the later form of the Old English prefix *ge-*, spelled in Middle English as *y*. As you know, the form has disappeared in Modern English.

Linguists often summarize the difference between Old and Middle English by calling the former the "period of full inflections" and the latter the "period of reduced inflections." But the number of inflections is not the only difference between Old and Middle English. Even the order of some parts of final derived sentences has changed during the period extending from 450 A.D. to the present day. The auxiliary part of the English verb phrase has undergone several changes, for example. These changes were not only in the order of the parts but also in the content of the optional parts of the auxiliary.

The auxiliary in Modern English. In order to decide what changes have taken place in the English auxiliary, the students must first be certain that they know the rules governing the auxiliary in Modern English sentences. Ask the students to recall what elements make up the auxiliary, the part called Aux, in the sentences of Modern English. The following rules describe the Modern English auxiliary:

$$\begin{array}{lll}
\text{Aux} & \longrightarrow & \text{Aux}_1\ (\text{Aux}_2) \\
\text{Aux}_1 & \longrightarrow & \text{Tense}\ \ (\text{Modal}) \\
\text{Aux}_2 & \longrightarrow & (\text{have} + \text{en})\ \ (\text{be} + \text{ing}) \\
\text{Modal} & \longrightarrow & \left\{ \text{may, can, shall, will, must, . . .} \right\} \\
\text{Tense} & \longrightarrow & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{present} \\ \text{past} \end{array} \right\}
\end{array}$$

If these rules are correct, they should be able to tell which elements are optional and which are obligatory by simply interpreting the symbols properly.

The phrase structure rules generate Aux (the various parts of the auxiliary) before the verb and after the subject NP:

$$\begin{array}{llll}
\text{Rule (1)} & \text{Sentence} & \longrightarrow & \text{NP} + \text{VP} \\
\text{Rule (2)} & \text{VP} & \longrightarrow & \text{Aux} + \text{Verb}
\end{array}$$

Object NP's, complements, predicate words, and other such elements are generated as part of the main verb in a position following the verb itself:

$$\text{Verb} \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Be} + \text{Pr} \\ \text{V}_{\text{lnk}} + \text{Pr} \\ \text{V}_{\text{mid}} + \text{NP} \\ \text{V}_{\text{in}} \\ \text{V}_{\text{tr}} + \text{NP} \end{array} \right\}$$

As the students may already hive discovered, the contents of the auxiliary and the final order of sentence parts have not always been the same in English. Ask them to look first at the auxiliary of Early Modern English as seen in the language of Shakespeare.

The auxiliary in Early Modern English. Some of the differences between Shakespeare's English and our own were discussed in two previous units and summarized briefly in this unit. See if they remember which parts of the auxiliary were different. Perhaps the following brief review will help to point out the important features of the auxiliary of Early Modern English.

The order of basic sentence parts in simple, declarative sentences was very nearly the same in Shakespeare's day as it is now. Phrase structure rules (1) and (2) given above would be the same for a grammar of Early Modern English. The following lines spoken by Antony in the play, *Julius Caesar*, reveal a word order exactly like our own: "

> "And Brutus is an honorable man,"
> "And men have lost their reason,"
> "I found it in his closet," and
> "I only speak right on."

The basic order of sentence parts is the same as ours:

$$\underset{1}{\underline{\text{Subject NP}}} + \underset{2}{\underline{\text{Auxiliary}}} + \underset{3}{\underline{\text{Verb}}} + \underset{4}{\underline{\text{Object NP}}} \text{ (or Predicate word).}$$

Even the parts of the auxiliary in the preceding sentences are identical with those in Modern English. Ask the students to point out the auxiliary elements in each of the sentences given above.

However, other sentences from the plays of Shakespeare reveal differences within the auxiliary. Shakespeare uses *be* + *en* with verbs of motion (such as coming, going, etc.), where we would use *have* + *en*:

> "The ides of March *are come*" (*JC*, III, i, 1) and
> "With him *is* Gratiano *gone* along" (*Merch.*, II, vi, 66).

Ask them to examine Shakespeare's use of the auxiliary in the following sentences:

> "He draw*s* Mark Antony out of the way" (*JC*, III, i, 29) and
> "He come*s*, my lord" (*Merch.*, IV, i, 16).

In both of these sentences the modern writer would have used *be* + *ing* rather than just the -*s* of present tense. ("He is drawing Marc Antony out of the way," and "He is coming, my lord.") Another difference was that the auxiliary word *do* was not always used as a "dummy" carrier of tense as it is in present-day English. *Do* constructions are found side by side with others without it:

> "Our hearts you see *not*." (*JC*. III, i, 182)
> "I *do not* cross you" (*JC*. V, i, 21)
> "*Comes* his army on?" (*JC*. IV, ii, 29)
> "*Did* Cicero say anything?" (*JC*. I, ii, 283)

We see, then, that *do* was an optional member of the auxiliary in Early Modern English. Later, it becomes obligatory to use *do* in English as a carrier of tense in sentences like the following: "*Did* I give him trouble?" and "I *did* not give him any trouble."

See if the students can write the phrase structure rules for the Early Modern English auxiliary. The following rules account for most of the differences that have been mentioned above.

$$\text{Aux} \longrightarrow \text{Tns} \left(\begin{Bmatrix} \text{(modal)} \quad \left(\begin{Bmatrix} \text{(have + en)} \quad \text{(be + ing)} \\ \text{be + en} \end{Bmatrix} \right) \\ \\ \text{do} \end{Bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\text{Modal} \longrightarrow \{\text{may, can, must, shall, will, . . .}\}$$

Several important differences are accounted for by these rules. Notice, first of all, that--as in Modern English--the only part of the auxiliary that is obligatory is *tense*; the rest is optional. The use of *be + en* as an alternate for *have + en* is restricted to occurrence with intransitive verbs of motion or direction (V_{id}). This part of the rule might be expanded to include occurrence with a linking verb such as *become*, as in "And this man *is become* a god." Notice also that *be + en* cannot occur with *be + ing* or *have + en*. Also very important is the fact that *do* does not occur (except in some Northern British dialects) with the other optional members of the auxiliary--Modal, *have + en*, *be + en*, or *be + ing*. These members of the auxiliary are not present when *do* occurs in the sentence. The modals listed in the rule are the same as those used in Modern English, but here the rule fails to account for the fact that *dare*, *need*, and *ought* are also used as modals in Early Modern English.

The rules discussed above do not account for all the differences between Shakespeare's use of the auxiliary and our own practices. It is in the transformation rules that other key differences occur. For instance, Shakespeare could invert the main verb and its tense to make yes/no questions ("*Comes* his army on?"), but today we can invert only the main verb *be* (and in some dialects *have*) in this manner. Also, Shakespeare's placement of the negative *not* is different from modern practice. (See *History of English, Parts I and II.*)

The auxiliary in Old English. Before asking the students to examine the auxiliary itself, direct their attention to the order of elements in Old English sentences. In some kinds of sentences, the main verb carrying the tense marker was located at the end:

(1) "& hu man utanbordes wisdom and lare hieder on lond *sohte*,"

which can be roughly translated as:

> "and how people from outside wisdom and learning here in this land *sought*."

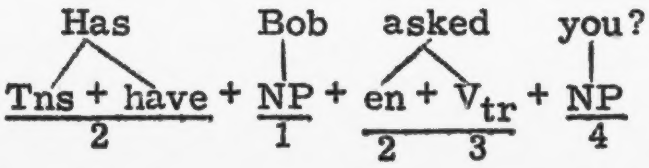
Ask them to show what the Modern English sentence would look like. On page 27 of the Francis text (lines 12-14), the sentence is given as follows:

> ". . . and how people from outside [the country] sought wisdom and learning here in this land."

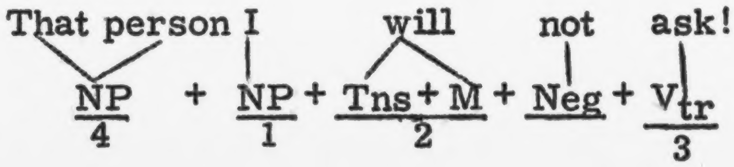
The basic order in Old English kernel sentences can be described as follows: $\underset{1}{\underline{\text{Subject NP}}} + \underset{2}{\underline{\text{Auxiliary}}} + \underset{3}{\underline{\text{Verb}}} + \underset{4}{\underline{\text{Object NP}}}$.

This order is the same as that of kernel sentences in Modern English. How is it then, you might ask them, that the verb in sentence (1) is located at the end of the sentence, not in the position in front of the object NP? The answer is that it seems most advantageous (at the present time) to derive the kernel sentences (or deep structure) of Old English in the same order found in Middle and Modern English. Furthermore, we will try to account for differences in the final derived sentences (the surface structure) by means of transformations. In Modern English, for example, we generate sentences in the order $\underset{1}{\underline{\text{subject}}} + \underset{2}{\underline{\text{auxiliary}}} + \underset{3}{\underline{\text{verb}}} + \underset{4}{\underline{\text{object}}}$, and yet we have a different order in derived sentences like the following:

(a)



(b)



We account for such differences in word order by means of transformation rules, such as the question transformation in sentence (a). In the very same way, then, we can generate the basic sentences of Old English (the deep structure) in the same order as that of Modern English and account for the different order in derived sentences (the surface structure) by means of transformation rules. You of course realize the difficulty involved in writing a grammar of a language for which we have no living speakers. Furthermore, we have no proof that the existing records contain all the relevant structures, a weakness which makes writing a grammar of Old English more difficult than it may appear.

In several ways, the Old English auxiliary was much like the Modern English auxiliary. Tense was obligatory, as it has been in every known stage of the language. There were several optional helping words just like our modern set of modals: cunnan, magan, motan, sculan, and willan. There was also a helping word habban (to have) which required the en form of the verb that occurred with it. With most intransitive verbs the helping word wesan was used instead of habban. Ask your students to recall if the auxiliary of Shakespeare's English has a similar restriction. In other constructions much like those in which Modern English uses be + ing, the Old English auxiliary had three different helping words--wesan "to be," beon "to be," and weorðan "to become"--and the suffix ende.

Ask the students to identify what parts of the Old English auxiliary are present in sentence (1) above. The answer, of course, is tense; sohte is the past tense form of the verb "to seek." Ask them to look at some other sentences containing the optional parts of the auxiliary. The following example from the writing of King Alfred contains the helping word wesan (to be) and the en form of the verb:

(2) ". . . þæt he wære cumen."

Since the verb is intransitive (cumen "to come"), the helping word wesan, rather than habban, was used. Ask them to compare this with Shakespeare's "The ides of March are come." In Modern English the sentence would look like this: ". . . that he had come." The tense marker is carried by have in the modern version; the helping word wære, past tense of wesan, carries the tense marker in the Old English sentence.

In another kind of sentence (again from Alfred's writing) the helping word wesan (to be) occurs with the suffix ende, an inflection which has been replaced by the modern form ing:

(3) ". . . & him æfterfylgende wæs."

The object of the verb (in this case him) has been moved to a place before the verb, and the helping word wæs (past tense + wesan) is placed at the end of the sentence. The final word order in this kind of sentence is nearly the reverse of the order in Modern English: ". . . and was following him."

The following example from Bede's Ecclesiastical History shows the verb separated from the auxiliary:

(4) "Ac wē willað ēow ēac fremsumlice on giestliðnesse onfōn. . ."

A literal translation shows the position of the modal willað (a form of will) after the subject wē (we); the verb onfōn (to receive) stands at the end of the sentence.

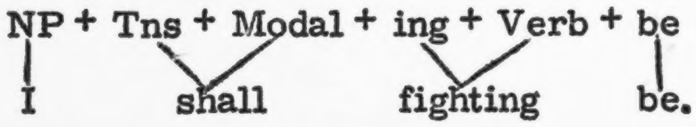
*"But we will you also kindly in hospitality receive. . ."

Examine the order of the parts of the following sentences:

(5) "Ic sceal feohtende beon"
*I shall fighting be. (literally)

(6) "Ic sceal gefuhten habban"
*I shall fought have. (literally)

In both examples the order differs considerably from Modern English. The underlying string for (5) could be symbolized in the following way:



In this sentence the auxiliary be has been moved to the end of the sentence from its position after the modal by means of a transformation rule. The same sort of operation accounts for the word order in sentence (6), but in this case it is the word have that is moved to the end.

$$\underbrace{\text{NP}}_{\text{I}} + \underbrace{\text{Tns} + \text{Modal}}_{\text{shall}} + \underbrace{\text{en} + \text{Verb}}_{\text{fought}} + \underbrace{\text{have}}_{\text{have.}}$$

The order of the parts in final derived sentences is not the only difference between the Old English auxiliary and our own Modern English auxiliary. There are also different restrictions as to which parts of the auxiliary may occur with other parts. For instance, the modals (cunn, mag, mot, sceal, will) could occur with habb + en, wes + en, or $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{beo}\\ \text{wes}\\ \text{weorð}\end{array}\right\}$ + ende, but modals could not occur with more than one of them in the same sentence. Also, the word do is not a part of the Old English auxiliary. In Old English the negative ne is placed according to several different rules, many of which differ from modern practice. Sometimes it was placed before the last helping word in the auxiliary; at other times it was placed before the verb, as in the following quotation from King Alfred:

(7) ". . . ðæt man ne bude be norðan him."
*". . . that man not lived north of him."

As we said previously, it is difficult to write phrase structure rules for a grammar of Old or Middle English. But, on the basis of what we can infer from sentences like those presented above, let us try to specify what the phrase structure rules for the Old English auxiliary might have been.

$$\text{Aux} \longrightarrow \text{Tns} \quad (\text{Modal}) \quad \left(\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{habb} + \text{en,}\\ \text{wes} + \text{en,}\\ \text{be} + \text{ende}\end{array}\right\}\right)$$

$$\text{Modal} \longrightarrow \{\text{cunn, mag, mot, sceal, will, . . .}\}$$

$$\text{be} \longrightarrow \{\text{beo, wes, weorð}\}$$

These three rules specify some of the main differences between the Old and Modern English auxiliaries. First of all, the Old English auxiliary contains roughly the same items that our present system does. In final derived sentences, the order of these parts varies a great deal from Modern English word order, but the parts function in roughly the same ways. The full complexity of the Modern English auxiliary is not possible in Old English, since the modal is restricted to occurrence with only one of the other members except, of course, tense. Thus a sentence like the following would not have been possible in Old English:

The soldiers should have been guarding the fort.

The alternate ways of forming the so-called "perfect" in Old English--either with the habb + en or wes + en--is more like Early Modern English than like the language of today. Shakespeare could also form the perfect in two ways: either with have + en or be + en. Both King Alfred and Shakespeare used be + en with certain intransitive verbs like come.

The modals listed in the rule are related forms of our modern set of modals--*can, may, must, shall,* and *will.* The different forms of *be* that occur in Old English with the suffix *ende* (*ing* in Modern English) have been reduced to a single word, *be,* in Modern English.

In addition to the rules listed above, any grammar of Old English would need to have several transformation rules to account for the final arrangement of the parts of the auxiliary in derived sentences. Furthermore, the rules given above are not, by any means, complete. They might even have been formulated differently and still be in line with the facts of Old English as seen in existing records. For instance, the *modals* and *tense* could be generated after (not before) the other items like *habb* + *en,* etc. Such a formulation, however, would require different transformation rules to reposition the parts of the auxiliary.

The auxiliary in Middle English. From the English of King Alfred, ask your students to turn their attention to Middle English (1150-1450), perhaps best known to them as the language of the English poet, Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400). The Middle English selection in the Francis text is early Middle English (1200) and, consequently, it looks much less like Modern English than Chaucer's writing does. In order to provide a contrast, we will draw most of our examples from the later Middle English period. The students will see immediately that the language of the *Rule for Anchoresses* is not the same as that of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales,* although both are called Middle English.

The auxiliary system found in Middle English closely resembles the one found in both the preceding and succeeding periods. The main differences are in the contents of the auxiliary and the restrictions upon the occurrence of the various parts which make it up. Ask the students to examine some of the more common patterns of Middle English sentences.

(1) ". . . þet alle ancren muwen wel holden one riwle. . ."
*". . . that *all anchoresses* *may* well *hold* *one rule.* . ."
1 2 3 4

(2) ". . . alle muwen & owen holden one riwle. . ."
*". . . *all* *may and ought* [to] *hold* *one rule.* . ."
1 2 3 4

In these two sentences from the *Ancrene Riwle* the order is identical with that of Modern English: Subject + Aux + Verb + Object. The auxiliary in both (1) and (2) contains the obligatory *tense* and the optional item *modal.* The Middle English modals--*conn, mow, moot, shal, wol,* and perhaps *ow* (*ought,* in (2) above)--are descendants of those listed previously for Old English. The usual position for auxiliary elements is in front of the main verb, but some parts (and even the verb itself) could be shifted out, just as they could in Old English:

(3) ". . . that his houndes *have* him *caught.* . ." (Knight's Tale-2067)

(4) "Whan that Arcite to Thebes *comen* *was.* . ." (Knight's Tale-1355)

The optional parts of the auxiliary--modal, have + en, be + en, and be + ing--are not used in Middle English exactly as they are today. As in Modern English, have + en may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs:

V_{tr}

(5) "Ful many a riche contree hadde he wonne. . ."
(Knight's Tale-865)

(6) ". . .When she hadde sworned. . ."
(Knight's Tale-913)

But some intransitive verbs occurred with be + en rather than the have + en:

(7) "Er it were day. . ./She was arisen. . ."
(Knight's Tale-1040-1)

(8) "Arcite is riden anon unto the town. . ."
(Knight's Tale-1028)

(9) ". . .Whan he was come almoost unto the toun. . ."
(Knight's Tale-894)

In Modern English, of course, the form have + en is required with these verbs: "A notice had come from the office."

The optional auxiliary, be + ing, is also found in Middle English. It is a descendant of the Old English auxiliary formed with ende and three different forms of be--beo, wes, weorð. One change from Old English times is that the be + ing occurs freely in the same verb phrases with have + en:

(10) ". . .We han ben waytinge al this fourtenight. . ."
(Knight's Tale-929)

In earlier stages of the language, the two forms could not occur together in the same verb phrase. The use of be + en with certain kinds of verbs as an alternative form of have + en continued into Shakespeare's time, but it has all but disappeared in Modern English.

The word do, only a main verb in Old English, became a part of the English auxiliary in the early Middle English period. It could appear after modals or after the auxiliary have + en, but not with be + ing.

(11) "As for the Prist that dede areste me. . ."
(The Paston Letters, 1454)

(12) ". . .than I may do wryte at thys tyme."
(The Paston Letters, 1456)

(13) "He. . .hath. . ./Doon make an auter. . ."
(Knight's Tale-1903-5)

(14) "He leet the feste of his nativitee
Don cryen thurghout Sarray his citee. . ."
(Squire's Tale-10, 359-60)

Of course, *do* continued to be used as a main verb also:

(15) ". . .I wol *don* sacrifice, and fyres bete."
(Knight's Tale-2254)

(16) "Fayn wolde I *doon* yow mirthe, wiste I how."
(Prologue-766)

One very important difference between Middle and Modern English lies in the use of the auxiliary word *do*. In Shakespeare's language, Early Modern English, the auxiliary *do* was an optional member of the auxiliary system. He could use either the *do* construction ("Did Cicero say anything?") or the verb construction ("Call you?"). The difference lies in the fact that in Shakespeare's time the helping word *do* could not occur with the other auxiliary parts--modals, *have* + *en*, or *be* + *ing*. In Middle English the auxiliary *do* occurs freely with both modals and *have* + *en*. Shakespeare could not use constructions like the following: *"They *will do* write it" or *"They *have done* written it." In brief, the auxiliary *do* does not occur with modals, *have* + *en*, or *be* + *ing*.

If we were to write a phrase structure rule for the Middle English auxiliary, it would differ in several ways from that of Early Modern or Modern English. Here is one way that the Middle English auxiliary could be specified:

$$\text{Aux} \longrightarrow \text{Tns} \quad (\text{Modal}) \quad \left(\begin{Bmatrix} (\text{have} + \text{en}) & \left(\begin{Bmatrix} \text{be} + \text{ing} \\ \text{do} \end{Bmatrix} \right) \\ & \\ \text{be} + \text{en} & \end{Bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\text{Modal} \longrightarrow \{\text{conn, mow, moot, shal, wol, ow, } \ldots\}$$

Try to get the students to formulate the main parts of the rules before giving them the above rules. The examples (1-16) and the Middle English selection in the Francis text should provide enough data to identify the basic parts of the auxiliary. These two rules show a striking similarity to the Modern English auxiliary. The main differences lie in the restrictions placed upon the co-occurrence of *have* + *en*, *be* + *en*, *be* + *ing*, and *do*. Today, of course, we cannot use *be* + *en* rather than *have* + *en* with verbs like *come*, *arise*, *ride*, etc. Notice that putting *do* as an alternative choice with *be* + *ing* prevents these two from occurring together. But this arrangement also allows *do* to occur with any other member of the auxiliary. By Shakespeare's time, *do* was not able to do this and could only occur in the auxiliary if the optional members--*have* + *en*, *be* + *en*, *be* + *ing*, and modals--were not present. Try to get the students to summarize the uses of *do* in Modern English. The main point to make is that *do* comes in by means of a transformation and is not a part of the auxiliary itself.

Review of changes in the English auxiliary. The history of the English auxiliary is marked by a few key developments. Tense, the one obligatory item in Modern English, has always been the single obligatory member throughout the history of English. The five modals that remain in Modern English--may, can, shall, will, and must (as well as the past tense forms of the first four)--have also been present throughout the history of English, although the individual forms have undergone changes. See if the students know of other words that have acted as modals. Be + en, a member of the auxiliary from before Alfred's time to the eighteenth century, no longer forms a part of the English auxiliary. It is normally restricted to passive constructions with transitive verbs and now enters the sentence by means of a transformation rule. The other members of the Modern English auxiliary--have + en and be + ing--have been present, in one form or another, throughout the 1200 years of English history. The contexts in which these two items could occur, however, have undergone considerable change. The word do entered the auxiliary during the Middle English period and continued to be a member in Early Modern English. But do has ended up in Modern English as a sort of "dummy" element used for carrying the tense marker in several kinds of constructions. The history of the English auxiliary points up an important fact: although the surface structure has changed considerably, the underlying structure of English sentences has changed very little in the last 1200 years.

D. The vocabulary of Old and Middle English.

The student version and the Marckwardt supplementary text probably contain more than enough material for the student to use in studying vocabulary changes. Furthermore, vocabulary change has been stressed in earlier history units, and it seems to be the area of language change which students understand best. The exercises and discussion questions are of a very general nature and seem to require no answers in the teacher version. For those teachers who want supplementary information, the following books are excellent sources:

Albert C. Baugh, A History of the English Language, Second Edition (New York, 1957).

Stuart Robertson, The Development of Modern English, Revised by Frederic G. Cassidy (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1954), Chapter 7, "Sources of the Vocabulary."

IV. The Comparative Method

The materials on language history, up to this point in the unit, have dealt with language forms which are attested to in written records. The concluding section, "The Comparative Method," deals with hypothetical language forms, and for this reason may be more difficult for your students to understand. A knowledge of earlier language forms seems essential, however, if the students are to use intelligently the etymological information found in dictionaries.

More interesting than the actual changes themselves is the discovery by linguists that changes in language, especially changes in sounds, operate not at random but in very definite patterns. Therefore, linguists have been able to make highly accurate guesses at what earlier forms of a language were like. Such observations are based upon patterns of change that have been observed in the written records of several languages. Written records of English, for example, date back only to the eighth century A. D. (the 700's), but records of Latin date back to the sixth century B. C. and those of Greek date all the way back to the fifteenth century B. C. By the comparison of several languages, linguists have been able to push the study of one family of languages, the Indo-European family, back to approximately 3000 B. C. Using the existing written records and the patterns of change reflected within those records, linguists can study and write about languages for which there are no written records. After studying the methods used by historical linguists, your pupils should have a better idea of what it means for languages to "be related."

If you want more information than you find in the student version, the following books are excellent sources:

> Winfred P. Lehman, Historical Linguistics: An Introduction (New York, 1962). The introduction and Chapter 5, "The Comparative Method," are especially helpful.
>
> Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York, 1933). Chapter 1, "The Study of Language," and Chapter 2, "The Comparative Method," contain excellent discussions of the methods of historical linguists.

The discussion questions and the exercises do not seem to require answers in the teacher version, since all the information required of the students can be found in dictionaries and in the student version itself.